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The Education of Women

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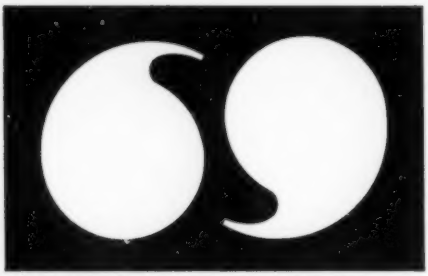

Talking Points

School for wives

Two of the articles in this issue of *Trends* deal with the education of women, and since, like a preacher on the subject of virtue, both authors are in favour of it, we felt that we ought to include, in the interest of balance, a more traditional view but one that just possibly may find favour with teachers of home economics. The extract that follows is taken from *Domostroj* ('Running a home'), a sixteenth-century work written in Novgorod and revised by Sylvester, an adviser to Ivan the Terrible. We are indebted to Dr Harry Leeming, Reader in Comparative Slavonic Philology at the School of East European and Slavonic Studies, University of London, for the translation.

> '. . . After rising from your couch and first cleansing yourself of sin and completing your devotions, you should indicate to the women and girls of the household their daily task, what work they are to do in each handicraft: to cook the meals for the day; which of them is to bake the loaves from finely sieved or coarsely sieved flour. 'And the lady of the house herself should know how to sieve flour, how to prepare the leaven and how to knead and roll out and bake the bread, the barm-cakes and the round loaves so that they should be properly baked, and the cakes and pies also. And she should know how much flour will be taken and how much will be baked from it; and how much of what comes from a quarter or an eighth or a sieveful; and how much bran will be left and how much pastry will be baked. She should know the correct measure in all things. The mistress herself should be able to bake and cook everything, meat and fish dishes, all kinds of pies, pancakes, porridges and jellies, and all sorts of pastries; and she knows how to instruct the servants and she knows everything herself.
> 'And when they are baking the bread, they then also wash the clothes, and the two jobs will be done at one go and firewood will not be wasted. And she should superintend the washing of the fine shirts and the best clothes, noting how much soap and wood ash for softening the water goes to wash how many shirts, and seeing that the clothes are properly washed and steamed, and rinsed clean, and dried and mangled, both the tablecloths and covers and cloths and towels; and she should herself keep an account of everything and hand over and take back everything at the same time . . .'

After that she is free to trot off to her Open University study centre.

The education of women

The year 1978, by one of those happy and convenient accidents of history, is not only the sixtieth anniversary of the Act that first gave the vote to women in Britain, it is also the fiftieth anniversary of the Act that gave them equal voting rights with men.

The issue of equal opportunities for men and women is one that can now be discussed against the background of a highly developed social environment in which physical characteristics are relatively less important than they once were. But what do equal opportunities mean in an educational sense? Aubrey Eaves looks at this problem and concludes that there is little evidence of inequality of opportunity in the educational system. David Wardle reviews the progress women have made in education over the last sixty years.

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Sixty years on: the progress of women's education 1918-78

David Wardle
Dean of Teacher Education, Padgate College of Higher Education, Cheshire

That the provision of education for girls and women has expanded immensely in the past sixty years is beyond doubt, and it is equally certain that advantage has been taken of the new provision. A few figures will illustrate the extent of the expansion. If, to be reasonably confident of comparing like with like, only post-1951 figures are taken,* the number of passes girls obtained in individual subjects at GCE O-level rose from 208,790 in 1951 to 803,579 in 1976 – an increase of 285 per cent. At A-level the increase is even more remarkable – from 23,783 in 1952 to 153,967 in 1976, or a rise of 547 per cent. To the O-level results should be added the very large number of passes in the CSE examination (introduced in 1965), if a full picture is to be gained of the number of girls now leaving school with nationally recognized certificates.

The number of women students at universities has shown a corresponding increase – from 10,889 in 1921, to 92,483 in 1976 77. This expansion is almost entirely a feature of the post-1945 period, and, in

* The General Certificate of Education replaced the General School Certificate in this year. Figures quoted in this paper are taken from *Statistics of Education*, published annually by the DES.

fact, much of the increase has occurred in the last ten years. In 1976/7 13,663 women were following post-graduate courses. Again, a large addition must be made to the later figures for non-university degree courses – a recent innovation on any large scale. In 1975, 27,190 women were in full-time attendance at polytechnics. Further education for women, which hardly existed in 1918, is a growth industry; 136,413 women attended major FE establishments full-time in 1975, and 100,000 more were on sandwich or part-time courses.

A final development that deserves attention is the rapid disappearance of single-sex schools and colleges. Whatever the academic merits or demerits of single-sex education, it can hardly be disputed that its removal is a step towards reducing discrimination on grounds of sex.

Qualified progress

All this represents genuine progress. The chance of girls following a secondary education leading to leaving certificates is many times greater than it was sixty years ago, and the same is true of their continuing to higher education. This should be borne in mind when qualifications to the apparently optimistic picture so far painted are suggested.

Because there *are* qualifications to be made. The figures I have referred to reflect not a specific attempt to bring the education of women into line with that of men, but a general expansion of the education system in which the prospects of boys have improved together with those of girls. In particular, expansion in higher education in the 1960s and 1970s has been of a revolutionary nature, associated with changing attitudes towards entry to degree courses, articulated chiefly by the Robbins Report.*

In 1918, whatever the legal or institutional situation, the fact was that girls were given very much less opportunity than boys for access to secondary education, and the openings in further and higher education were even more limited. For a fair estimate of progress we need to discover not merely whether more girls take A-levels or degree courses now than they did in 1918, but, more importantly, whether access to such opportunities is more evenly distributed.

Little discrimination before O-level

Statistics suggest that, up to GCE O-level, discrimination on grounds of sex has largely disappeared. Differences between the numbers of entries and passes by boys and girls are so slight as to be insignificant. Beyond O-level, however, the position alters sharply. In summer 1976, to take one example, girls entered for only three-quarters as many A-level subjects as boys, and their results, *pro rata*, were slightly but definitely poorer. The tendency for girls to opt out of schooling is underlined by the fact that of those who achieve five or more O-levels, considerably more girls than boys do not continue to A-level. When we move on to higher education, we find that the difference between the numbers of boys and girls entering degree courses conforms almost exactly to the difference between the sexes in A-level results.

Different preferences

Variations in total numbers taking examinations or passing on to higher education do not, however, bring out the full extent of the difference between the educational careers of boys and girls. At

* Committee on Higher Education. *Higher Education.* London: HM Stationery Office, 1963.

least equally significant are preferences for courses and subjects. Here very obvious differences occur in the sixth form, where, for example, about three times as many boys as girls follow science subjects, the disproportion being even greater if mathematics is added to science. In higher education, technological courses are overwhelmingly male in recruitment, science and social science recruit roughly twice as many men as women, arts courses are more or less balanced, and language courses are favoured by women.

Even the organization of courses follows a recognizably different pattern. In polytechnics, although the full-time courses show a complement of women students rather higher than might be expected from A-level results, women are massively under-represented on sandwich and day release courses, which might be expected to be more directly related to industrial training. Three- and four-year teacher-training courses remain, as they have always been, strong recruiters of women. In further education, sexual differentiation is even more clearly marked, with many courses being virtually exclusively male or female. Engineering and construction are male preserves, while nursing recruits fifty women for every man and secretarial and office arts courses are even more exclusively female. It is indeed probable that the popularity of such courses accounts very largely for the drop-out of girls between O- and A-level.

Four tentative conclusions

To sum up, then, it seems possible to arrive at four tentative conclusions:

In statistical terms formal equality appears to have been translated into effective equality up to compulsory school leaving age.

Above this level marked differences appear, with a strong tendency for well-qualified girls to move into full-time further education, often on relatively low-level courses.

Those girls who do continue to A-level and wish to enter higher education appear to do so on equal terms with boys as far as gross numbers are concerned.

In higher education, and even more clearly in further education, very significant differences appear between the preferred courses of male and female students, to the point of virtual exclusion in some cases.

Optimistic interpretation of data

One could, I think, offer an optimistic interpretation of the data, arguing that what is happening is a process of equalization from the bottom up. A balance, it could be argued, was reached in about 1950 up to O-level, and considerable progress has been achieved in levelling-up to A-level and above. In due course equality at A-level will be reached, and, as a consequence, will extend to higher education. Such a view can certainly be supported by a reading of the A-level statistics, since the number of passes obtained by girls has increased far more rapidly than those by boys, and the difference has recently become even more marked. Between 1952 and 1965, boys' passes rose by 207 per cent and girls' passes by 279 per cent. Between 1965 and 1976 boys' passes increased by a further 27 per cent, but the increase for girls was 71 per cent. One might argue the boys' results are approaching saturation, while the girls continue to advance, and it is hard to resist the conclusion that equality in the total number of passes

must be reached in the fairly near future. If this is so, then it is not unreasonable to suppose that the greater demand by qualified girls for higher education will bring about an automatic adjustment of the present imbalance of the sexes. In fact, the proportion of women undergraduate students at universities has increased, and, as with A-level results, the tendency for women to catch up has accelerated recently. Nevertheless the increase is only from 29·6 per cent in 1921 to 34 per cent in 1976/7, while the number of women following post-graduate courses remains obstinately at about 25 per cent of the total.

Little progress in subject choice

Against this, surprisingly little progress has been made in breaking down sexual differentiation in types of courses and subject specialization. There still remain strongly established attitudes and expectations about courses appropriate to boys and girls, and these are none the less influential for being largely unspoken and frequently unconscious. Clearly these are reflections of prejudices about the type of employment suitable for the different sexes, and – a feature of great consequence for able girls – of the level of promotion and responsibility to which women should aspire.

Although the appearance of the two-income family as a common phenomenon has given working women a new respectability, the career woman is still a novelty, and a suspect novelty, outside a few traditionally feminine occupations. It is not yet clear what effect large-scale unemployment, as a more or less permanent condition, will have upon women's prospects in the job market, but it is hard to see how it can be anything but unfavourable to the establishment of genuine equality of opportunity unless really radical changes occur in social attitudes towards roles within the family.

Schools have some responsibility for perpetuating such attitudes, and for this reason a qualification is necessary to the statement that effective equality has been achieved up to about O-level. Something must be operating, some difference of treatment, however subtle and perhaps accidental, to cause the very substantial variation between the aspirations and achievements of boys and girls after sixteen years.

Parents mainly responsible for sexual typing

But schools are only partly responsible. Any infant teacher knows that children when they first enter school are already well on the way to ineradicable typing as little boys or little girls. Even if schools were to launch a deliberate campaign to eliminate differential sexual expectations about education and careers, it is not clear how much they could achieve. No evidence suggests that parents on the whole feel very strongly about the matter; indeed, much of the weight of the campaign would have to be directed against the influence of parents, who are particularly responsible for the sexual typing of infants.

Popular literature, especially periodical literature, and a great deal of advertising depend heavily upon the cultivation of sexually specific markets. In the sphere of work, neither employers nor trade unions have impressive records for implementing effective equal opportunity.

All the experience of the past thirty years is that schools are inefficient agents of social engineering; they can produce disappointingly little effect upon profound and strongly held assumptions concerning differences in social roles and status, whether these differences are based upon class, colour or sex. It is a comment upon the present position that independent television can mount a series about a woman company director, based entirely upon the problems arising from the single fact that she is a woman. To turn from fiction

to reality, the long and bitter feud over the ordination of women suggests the depth and strength of the feeling that certain social functions are still inherently male.

Guarded optimism

Perhaps the safest conclusion, then, is one of guarded optimism. In gross numbers of students and achievements, girls are likely to reach equality with boys up to A-level in the fairly near future, and there are grounds for believing that the same may occur in higher education. The real test will then be whether the boundaries break down around subjects and courses that are now still very largely exclusively male or female in recruitment. This will depend upon massive changes in social attitudes and expectations to which schools may usefully contribute, but which, if experience is any guide, will be slow in coming. It would simply be silly to deny that enormous progress has been made in girls' education since 1918; but it would be equally absurd to ignore the disadvantages under which girls still suffer.

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Equal opportunities for men and women

Aubrey Eaves
Statistician, Department of Education and Science Statistics Branch

What are equal opportunities? Can one have equality of opportunity when different individuals are involved, even in similar situations? The large-numbers concept that statisticians are all familiar with – that in some respects the characteristics of large numbers of people are more stable and predictable than those of individuals – does little to solve the problem. This concept works very well for life insurance companies, but even they have separate life tables for men and women – and after all, boys and girls do mature at different rates and have different educational interests.

Perhaps the 'qualified' and 'willing' concepts used by Robbins* might help to clarify the situation. This at least separates those who have the ability to take advantage of opportunities from those for whom they may be somewhat wild fantasies. Not that formal qualifications say all that is to be said about ability. The successful entrepreneur may have no obvious 'qualification' other than a lively mind, and housewives have been known to take to systems analysis with no more than their everyday management skills to guide them. The 'willingness' idea is likewise hard to use comprehensively, as anyone who has dealt with surveys on human intentions will realize. One has to bear in mind the forces that commonly operate in organized life, and in the course of time the individual's point of view and the opportunities themselves are bound to alter.

With such a long list of caveats it would be surprising if one were ever able to reach a firm conclusion. The Equal Opportunities Commission has, of course, gone to a great deal of effort to discourage the more obvious sex discriminatory injustices in employment and social

* Committee on Higher Education. *Higher Education.* London: HM Stationery Office, 1963.

life, but this is not sufficient if one is trying to measure equality of opportunity. Neither is it particularly relevant just to quote the numbers of each sex doing different things – although, almost inevitably, we shall need to, because there is no way, for example, of measuring the number of potential but frustrated women engineers.

	Percentage female
Maintained and special schools	
Children below school leaving age	49
Children above school leaving age	49
Non-advanced GCE further education students	48
Advanced further education and teacher training students	48
University undergraduates	36

The purpose of this article is to examine the available evidence for signs of discrimination between men and women and to point out the respects in which the information is inevitably incomplete.

The above table gives a comprehensive view of the distribution of the sexes in the education system of England and Wales for the academic year 1976/77. The percentages relate to full-time and sandwich students, including those still at school.

Differences at A-level and university entrance

This pattern, with the pronounced fall in the proportion of women in universities, is fairly consistent over time, and, as far as one can judge, it is consistent also for cohorts.* While it is never possible to measure the social pressures that may influence young women not to take more advantage of university education, some comparisons can be made of their preferences and performance, relative to men, at the GCE A-level and university entrance stages, where differences appear to be most pronounced.

	Male			Female		
	Entries (thousands)	Passes (thousands)	(per cent)	Entries (thousands)	Passes (thousands)	(per cent)
GCE O-levels 1974	1,255	731	58·2	1,222	742	60·7
GCE A-levels 1976	309	209	67·7	225	154	68·6
Grade A			9·4			8·0
B			13·1			13·1
C			12·2			12·5
D			14·2			15·1
E			18·7			19·9

If it is assumed that those who took A-levels in the summer of 1976 would probably have been O-level candidates in 1974, an examination of the entry and pass figures does not reveal any unusual disparity between the sexes. The female A-level entry was 42 per cent of all

* The word statisticians use for groups of individuals chosen on the basis of one particular criterion such as their date of birth.

entries and the passes were 42 per cent of all passes. It is not until the distribution of A-level passes with respect to subject is examined that a real difference of preference is found.

	A-level passes 1976	
	Male (per cent)	Female (per cent)
Arts	24·0	52·1
of which modern languages	4·4	11·8
Science and technical subjects	47·8	23·2
of which mathematics	18·9	6·9
Social science and vocational subjects	28·2	24·7

Do women differentially prefer arts to science because of some basic difference between men and women or because they have become conditioned to regard some pursuits as more feminine than others?

The same differential between measures of preference and success is revealed by the UCCA statistics on applications for, and admissions to, British universities. In 1976 some 36 per cent of home applicants were women. If candidates for direct admission are included, 37 per cent of first year full-time students were women. Hence it would again appear that female preferences, rather than lack of ability or sex bias in the university admission system, are the dominant factor. The A-level subject-specific differences are reflected in the first year students' subjects of admission.

	First year full-time home students at British universities (1976)	
	Male (per cent)	Female (per cent)
Arts	15·9	40·5
of which languages, literature and area studies	7·8	24·1
Science and technical subjects	57·0	31·8
Social science and vocational subjects	27·0	27·7
All subjects	100	100

Although the popularity of subjects has varied over the years for both men and women, their general preferences have been broadly consistent with those shown in the tables.

Degrees

Finally, it may be of interest to examine the success of those admitted to university in terms of degrees awarded. The latest figures available from the University Grants Committee for first degrees awarded relate to the year ending 31 December 1976. Comparing these with the admissions statistics three years earlier indicates once more that women and men do not differ substantially in attainment.

The home students admitted to first year courses at British universities in October 1973 were 35·7 per cent female, or 35·0 per cent female if overseas students are included. The percentages of women among those awarded first degrees during 1976 are as follows:

Class of degree (year ending 31 December 1976)	Percentage who were women (home and overseas)
First class honours	25·0
Second class honours (upper division)	39·5
Second class honours (lower division)	40·1
Second class honours (undivided)	22·8
Other honours	24·4
Pass or ordinary	33·8
All first degrees	35·3

It can be seen that in terms of general performance there is little difference between men and women. The achievement pattern by class of degree is again typical of other years, with women getting both relatively fewer first class honours than one might expect (35 per cent), but also relatively fewer results below second class. Hence women appear to be more stable performers than men. Men predominate, to a greater extent than expected, both at the top and the bottom of the classification scale. If opportunities that tend to be biased towards first class honours graduates are considered – post-graduate research for example – one would expect that the proportion of women taking such options would be closer to 25 per cent than to 35 per cent. In fact the new entrants to post-graduate courses in 1976 were 31 per cent female. Of course, it is not known what proportion of first class honours graduates wished to do post-graduate work, so these percentages have no firm basis.

No evidence of inequality

To what extent are the apparent differences between the sexes due, on the one hand, to natural skills and preferences and, on the other, to social conditioning? Whatever the answer to that question may be, the evidence we have certainly seems to suggest that, whatever educational opportunities women take up, they are, overall, just as successful as men.

Community teachers in Nottinghamshire

Roger Baker
Former member of HM Inspectorate

What do community teachers do, and how are they regarded by their colleagues? This article gives an account of one county's scheme.

In 1971 the former Nottinghamshire LEA appointed its first six community teachers to the county unattached staff to work in schools with a concentration of disadvantaged or underprivileged children. By May 1974 the number of such teachers had been increased to twenty-seven. Now the county has more than fifty teachers employed in this work.

To determine the priority of need in appointing such teachers to schools, the LEA used a number of criteria: the occupational group of all fathers; the incidence of large families; the number of pupils receiving free school meals; the number of children with educational handicap; evidence of lack of parental interest; the extent of rapid pupil turnover; poor attendance; one-parent families; the children's general physical condition; and housing conditions and unemployment. The placement of community teachers by these criteria coincided remarkably closely with the areas of social deprivation as shown in the *County Deprived Area Study*, carried out by the Department of Planning and Transportation at a later date.*

Recruitment and training

The qualities sought by the LEA in appointing community teachers have been, primarily, good teaching experience and a personality that helps to make communication easier. The ability to listen with an open mind, and with sympathy rather than sentimentality, is perhaps more important than the ability to talk. Determination in the face of difficulties and a conviction about the value of the work are essential to the post. A few teachers who have had previous professional experience as social workers have been employed, but it has become evident, as they have themselves admitted, that the fundamental requirement is good teaching experience. It was found that the community teachers experiencing the most difficulty with their work were those whose actual classroom experience was limited, or of poor quality. As the city of Nottingham has a large number of children from ethnic minorities in its schools, in some of these the LEA has appointed community teachers from ethnic minorities. These teachers therefore understand a different culture and are able to penetrate it and gain the confidence of parents.

The status of the community teacher, with above-scale payments and on the staff of the county unattached service, has at times given rise to difficulties. But in most schools these have now completely disappeared because of the obvious commitment of the community teacher to the welfare of the children of that school, and the excellent

* Director of Planning and Transportation. *County Deprived Area Study*. Nottingham: Nottinghamshire County Council, 1975.

relations and cooperation established between the community teacher and the head and the staff.

During 1975 and 1976, community teachers were withdrawn from the schools one day a week for a year to undergo training at the University of Nottingham and Trent Polytechnic. These courses introduced community teachers to ideas about the social and psychological background to their work, to an examination of the skills required, and to an understanding of the functions of social agencies with whom they might be required to cooperate.

The role of the community teacher

In 1972, a working party of the six original home/school liaison teachers – together with the educational adviser for deprived children – produced a report which concluded:

> 'The principal aim of the work should be to enlarge mutual understanding between the school and the families and neighbourhood which it serves and to strengthen the help which they can give to each other, bearing in mind especially those children who most need help and whose parents sometimes seek it least'.

Many recent educational studies have pointed to the differing levels of attainment occasioned by the varying measure of support, or indeed complete lack of support, parents give to their children's school education. Such support depends largely on an understanding of what the school is attempting to do and on the parents' confidence in the teaching staff. The educationally disadvantaged child usually lacks support to a far greater extent, because the parents themselves – even when they want to take an interest in their children's education – are not sufficiently articulate and are unable of their own accord to arrive at the understanding or confidence they need. From its inception, therefore, the principal aim of the scheme has been to overcome this gap in understanding between school and parent for the educational benefit of the child. This has involved not only explaining what the school stands for – its relations, its organization and its methods of teaching – but also attempting to bring to parents a realization of their own importance in the child's education, and of the need for cooperation between school and parent. It is not merely non-caring families who need this, as the following report from a very disadvantaged area in Nottingham City shows:

> 'I visited to introduce myself and get to know the family. I received a warm welcome from Mrs. F, a charming lady and excellent mother to her children. When we had chatted a while about the school and the children's progress, I asked if there were any problems concerning the school. Mrs F confessed rather hesitantly that she was worried that Robert was not making progress in his reading and thought it might be because he just didn't enjoy the books he was using. She did not like telling the teacher because she did not want her to think she was telling her her job. She agreed when I suggested I should have a word with the teacher.
>
> As we sorted out the problem of Robert and his reading, Mrs F also formed a close relationship with Robert's teacher. She came in every week to work with the class. She became actively involved in all school activities'.

The teaching role is very important in this situation. When parents realize that it is a teacher from the child's school who is visiting them because of concern about the child's educational progress, that teacher

can be in a far more advantageous position for making friendly contact, and for influencing parental attitudes, than representatives of other agencies – particularly if these are associated with legal sanctions. Classroom teaching helps the community teachers to know personally the learning problems of a particular child. They are able to assess these problems from experience, and are then in a position to conduct an informed discussion about them. Additionally, a teacher is able to appreciate from a professional standpoint the problems that might arise in school because of the ideas and methods of a teacher colleague. Having a working relationship with that colleague at classroom level, a community teacher can then use professional judgement to influence the situation.

The amount of time community teachers spend in teaching varies, but not considerably, most schools obeying fairly strictly the expressed intention of the original notice of appointment, that half of the teachers' time should be taken up with teaching. The nature of the teaching work is important; it must be seen as an essential contribution of a curricular nature and not as 'filling-in'. It is, admittedly, not always easy to design a suitable teaching programme, but failure to do so can quickly undermine a community teacher's real standing as a teacher, and reinforce the misconception that they are only amateur social workers. The professional standing of community teachers, in relation to their teacher colleagues, is of vital importance. They must be afforded the opportunity to teach, and must be able to demonstrate that they are not only good teachers in the classroom but full-time members of staff, undertaking their share of duties in the day-to-day running of the school. The ability of the community teachers to involve their colleagues in their work is essential.

Intermediaries

The most effective community teachers regard themselves as intermediaries who help parents to know the schools and, more important, their teaching colleagues. The community teacher must avoid appearing to work as an expert more or less in isolation. This attitude can only arouse resentment from teaching colleagues, or cause a diminution of interest in the homes and welfare of their pupils – a negation of the community teacher's role.

The relationship between the head and the community teacher is a crucial and, at times, a delicate one. It should be recognized, in all schools, that the head is ultimately responsible for the welfare of children in the school and for the school's relationship with parents. Within this framework the community teacher has much opportunity for responsibility and initiative, with a large measure of confidentiality. The community teacher can look to the head for advice, support and direction in his work; the head can rely on his community teacher for effective immediate help in following up time-consuming individual problems with parents or children.

It is not possible for the community teacher to pursue educational aims in visiting parents without becoming involved, more or less frequently, with social problems. As one community teacher once wrote:

> 'As has been said, our function is educative. It is, however, difficult to educate a child who is chronically hungry, dirty, uncomfortable or under threat of non-accidental injury.
>
> Neither is it easy to teach neurotic children of over-anxious parents, children who are over-indulged, though mentally neglected, and those with unidentified disabilities.

Every teacher knows how time-consuming one difficult or unhappy child can be. It is usually quicker to try and identify the problem and set about putting it right, than to try to ignore it or try to teach in spite of it'.

One family was visited because of their small boy's poor pattern of attendance. The boy and mother were in a room with a roaring fire of old timber, although the weather was not particularly cold. The mother said that the boy was not attending school because he was picked on by other children for being dirty and unkempt. She complained that she could not get any hot water, although they had a bathroom in the house. The community teacher discovered that the mother had been lighting the fire in the wrong room. The water was heated by a back boiler in the other room.

Not all social problems are as easily solved:

'The class teacher asked me to visit Anne's mother, reputedly a bad character and neglectful to her family. The children had been seen half a mile away from home one morning at 8.00 am wandering the streets, ill-clad and obviously with no food or drink in them. Anne is a seven-year-old, with tremendous problems which manifest themselves in very disturbed behaviour. Her concentration span is virtually non-existent, her language is sparse, inadequate to meet most situations, she has little understanding or mastery of her environment, is always in some kind of trouble and is so emotionally neglected that she constantly strives for attention. I was asked to visit Mrs A as recently Anne's behaviour had deteriorated. Usually quite well dressed, she was looking much grubbier and neglected. She was constantly incontinent. She had been stealing things from her classroom. Also she had been seen wandering the streets at all hours'.

The community teacher who visited Mrs A was met with a hostile reception – all the blame was placed on the children. As a result of the visit Anne's appearance did improve, and the children were no longer seen on the streets in the mornings.

'Now this visit, along with all the others I have made to Mrs. A, did not, of course, have the magic formula of making Mrs A into a good, caring mum, but at least she knows she is being watched . . . by someone who as an ordinary teacher has expressed interest and concern in herself and her children.'

Relations with other agencies

The maintenance of a proper balance in the community teacher's work is a difficult task. The community teacher must not become over-involved in the purely social work aspects, and yet, at the same time, he must be able to alleviate family problems and instigate the establishment of an educatively supportive home by providing suitable advice and help. At times stronger intervention is necessary and other agencies must be alerted to protect children. As another community teacher wrote:

'Many of the visits are followed up by liaison with other agencies. The information uncovered necessitates the intervention of other agencies. As I am not a social worker or educational welfare officer I do not do their work or fulfil their roles'.

In the early days of the scheme, in fact, there was a considerable measure of justifiable suspicion on the part of social workers towards

members of another profession – untrained in social work skills – being involved in this field. Close liaison and good relations are now established and maintained between community teachers and social workers at field-work level – community teachers represent schools on case conferences and social workers visit schools and learn information that teachers are at times alone able to provide.

Similar distrust has been felt by Educational Welfare Officers, who have seen the use of community teachers as an infringement of their area of activity, a hindrance to the more liberal interpretation of their responsibilities, made possible by suitable training, and a reason for limiting a necessary expansion of their establishment. In practice, however, in most cases community teachers and EWOs have established close cooperation. Community teachers usually deal with cases of absence, which indicate some school or home difficulties or educational or social stress on the pupil. They try to prevent these developing into the confirmed truancy cases, which only add to the load of an already over-burdened educational welfare staff.

Only six community teachers are working in secondary schools, yet the secondary school – a far more complex organization, far more specialized in its methods, indeed often far more forbidding to its parents – equally needs to enlist the interests and cooperation of parents. The community teacher in the secondary school is often faced with the problem of the adolescent in conflict – the home being one of the areas of tension that produce a fall in standards of school work. This situation calls for extremely tactful handling. The fundamental problems are the same – parents' lack of understanding of the school and its educational aims – and the school's lack of knowledge about the educationally damaging effects of social or family difficulties. These problems often lead to truancy or aggressiveness. Whereas the younger child is exposed to the physical danger of non-accidental injury, the adolescent is often exposed to moral dangers. The community teacher becomes the ears and eyes, and sometimes the effective arm, of the pastoral system within the school, helping the education to be satisfying and productive, and the pupils to attain their academic potential and to develop a wholeness of character.

Activities of community teachers

Community teachers are given a wide measure of responsibility and independence in the way they actually function, although joint meetings with advisers tend to propagate ideas, and a certain common pattern emerges, developed with differing emphasis according to the personality of the teacher and the needs of the school. They are very concerned to prepare children of under school age for school. This involves visiting homes to introduce the school to the parents – often with a brochure – and to encourage them in simple educational practices which could lead, without difficulty, to more formal education in school, e.g. elements of letter recognition and formation, counting, reading of stories, learning of nursery rhymes. Many have a stock of suitable books that they can make available: others can give advice on suitable toys. They can explain to parents the value of time spent on play with children, and particularly the development of children's language through conversation.

The community teacher organizes the opportunity for mothers of prospective entrants to visit the school one afternoon a week, to get the children used to coming to school, and to enable mothers to meet and get to know the head and teachers who have responsibility for the children in the school. The ability to draw mothers and children initially to such gatherings depends on the personal contact and the

personal invitation – often first given in the home – which result from the availability of the community teacher. It is the community teacher's aim to seek out the cooperation of those parents who, because of fear or apathy, would not offer it of their own accord. This is the reason for visiting homes, whether during school time, or in the evenings, when father, as well as mother, is likely to be at home. Visiting tries to embrace all the families in the school, and community teachers have devised systematic ways of attempting to ensure this. But often it must take place at the instigation of the head or class teacher, when they are disturbed by the behaviour of pupils in school – listlessness, incontinence or frequent emotional upsets in young children, for example, and, in adolescents, occasional truancy (often of a significant pattern), belligerency, or a complete failure to progress. Visiting frequently reveals social or psychological problems arising from such things as broken homes, bad home conditions or crime. At times immediate support can be given, at others the community teacher can only refer the problem to a social worker. The latter is well aware of which social needs make an overwhelming call on his time and interest. Community teachers are also, on the whole, well aware of the dangers of matters of this kind, and emphasize the basic educational aim of their work when visiting.

Organization of activities for parents

It is this basic educational aim of drawing the parent into an active participation in the education of the child that underlies another aspect of the community teacher's work – the organization of activities for parents in school or in connexion with it. Some of these may appear to be of a social nature, but parents who have children in schools with community teachers are not drawn in by blatantly educative activities, and involvement in the education of their children cannot be achieved by too obvious evangelism. Coffee mornings can be used to talk about the children in the school and can lead parents into learning situations with their own children. Parents have been willing to attend more directly educational talks and discussions, given in a social atmosphere, about, for example, health problems and, in the secondary schools, about drugs and schoolgirl pregnancies.

Involvement in education at this level has brought about, for a number of parents, an interest in education in a wider sense and the arrangement by the community teacher, with the school's blessing, of activities that are more an extension of the parent's own education.

Most community teachers, because of the nature of their work, have become involved, largely in their own time, in wider ventures – in local 'festivals', and youth club work. Above all, they have been deeply committed, in many cases, to organizing and running the family summer schools, which, under the aegis of the LEA, have kept schools in deprived areas open for a month during the summer holidays, and created the opportunity for parents' cooperation in the provision of educational and recreational facilities for their children.

The variety of school-based activities undertaken by community teachers with groups of parents has perhaps obscured the fact that a considerable amount of the time (up to 70 per cent) allowed for community work is spent in actually visiting parents. In one school, in nineteenth-century buildings in Nottingham, with 300 pupils on roll from 175 families – 42 per cent of whom were from ethnic minority groups and 28 per cent from one-parent families – during the spring term 1977 the community teacher met the parents of 131 children. Seventy eight of these meetings involved lengthy discussions of

problems. Thus the community teacher had been in contact with 64 per cent of the families during that term, and had dealt with educational problems in 45 per cent of the total number of families.

How successful is the work of the community teacher?

At this stage it is difficult to assess the community teacher's work. In most schools, heads and teaching staff can produce considerable anecdotal evidence of the cases of individual children who have been happier in school, and produced better work, because of the intervention of the community teacher in home/school relations. Heads, teachers and parents recognize the change in parent's attitudes to, and greater cooperation with, the school. It would be foolish to assert that these things could not and do not occur where there are no community teachers. It is, however, clear from the evidence of heads, and an examination of the workload of the community teachers, that in the schools serving socially deprived areas the needs are of such magnitude that to achieve any positive results a greater amount of time and a greater than normal degree of teacher availability are essential. Social agencies outside the schools have come to appreciate the importance of the work the community teachers are doing, and realize that in the present situation other agencies would be unable to provide the same service.

Trends 1978/4

'Actors in Schools' and after

Bert Parnaby
HM Inspector

The Actors in Schools survey was carried out in 1974. In this article, Bert Parnaby summarizes its main findings and gives an account of what has happened since then.

Education Survey No. 22, *Actors in Schools*,* was published in February 1977, well into the period of the financial squeeze, though not too late to say some useful things about the value of the work of actors in schools. The visits for the survey had been made in the spring and summer terms of 1974 when cuts were only a cloud on some of our horizons. These visits were made by a group of HM Inspectors to a national sample of forty-six schools (primary, middle and secondary) known to be seeing the work of about forty different professional companies at the time the survey was carried out. The work divided itself into what is often termed 'Children's Theatre' ('Young People's Theatre' is now more fashionable) – basically constituting a straight theatrical performance – and into 'Theatre in Education' ('TIE' for short), which originated at the Belgrade Theatre, Coventry, in 1965. The latter (TIE) consists of work on a project with children – ideally one class – and involves much role play and only some elements of performance. Within these two categories, the companies were found to be grouped into various types according to their theatrical or financial

* Department of Education and Science. *Actors in Schools*. Education Survey 22. London: H.M. Stationery Office, 1976.

organization, e.g.:

commercial touring companies;

TIE companies in some sort of relationship or liaison with a subsidized regional or civic theatre – such relationships on the whole being uneasy for various internal, artistic and financial reasons. Here and there, however, good examples of an 'integrated' policy between the main theatre and the TIE company were to be found;

fringe and experimental companies working in the community as well as in schools;

TIE companies set up and financed, or very largely financed, by a local education authority;

amateur groups, very often of teachers or students in colleges of education. Some work in this category was seen in the course of the survey, but it was not included because it would have been impossible to cover it comprehensively.

Survey results

Briefly, the members of the survey team approved of much of the work they saw, and in the survey they were able to suggest several ways of bringing about more effective liaison and understanding between schools and actors. (There were short-comings on both sides, mainly due to the fact that their opportunities to meet and work together were, for most of them, few and irregular.) The companies often lacked writers and designers of quality. Some schools regarded the actors' work largely as diversion and entertainment. Generally, there was a lack of depth, and sometimes the themes, though socially realistic, lacked relevance for the actual children concerned. Locally based subjects, stories and topics seemed to be the most appropriate. Fundamentally, however, the educational potential of actors' work in school (both in terms of performance and TIE) was found to be very much greater than the mere experiencing of theatre in school – though this in itself is valuable. The survey summarized these benefits as follows:

An experience of theatre in school, where for many children attitudes to the arts are first formed. If the arts flourish in the schools there will be greater prospects of their flourishing in the community.

An experience of drama in education, e.g. work in improvization, role-play, simulation, and so on, often complementing the work of the drama teacher.

A unique experience – aesthetic, linguistic, visual and aural – brought about by a live performance, which can be equally arresting to the more and the less able, particularly where their social and personal education is concerned.

An insight, through theatrical images and symbols – visual and aural – into deep areas of human concern. Abstract concepts may be realized theatrically in difficult areas of experience where words on their own often fail.

A service to teachers of various subjects in showing how information can be conveyed effectively and quickly (through documentary techniques, for example); how theatre skills can blend with teaching techniques to achieve communication with children; and how original teaching materials – often based on local studies and geared to the particular needs of the school – can be created and developed. Such a service can be further expanded through work-

shops, previews and conferences to the benefit both of actors and teachers.

For these reasons the survey recommended that: 'Local authorities and other grant-aiding bodies may wish to consider aid, even when the work is entirely confined to schools, because such work at its best is likely to be of ultimate benefit to the fostering of the arts in the community'.

Some problems

At the time of the survey the two main sources of financial support were the Arts Council of Great Britain, through its subsidies to theatres to whom TIE companies were attached, and a few LEAs. The whole area of finance was complicated, and, above all, lacked long-term continuity. Many of the problems were associated with the successful growth of TIE: uncertainty (even suspicion) about the actors' motives, subject matter and standards; the lack of status drama has in the curriculum; and even the unfamiliar terminology. After all, what *can* TIE mean to the uninitiated? Nevertheless, over twenty years after the first Children's Theatre companies were set up and nine years after the founding of the first TIE company seemed to be a crucial time to look at the work dispassionately and thoroughly: hence the survey.

The picture today is a family portrait: the family exists, there have been births and some interesting marriages (rather of ideas and philosophies than of individual companies) and, sadly, some deaths. But the picture now is of a growing family, more sure of its identity – though not entirely so – and less suspicious of others in the same community. Many schools are still too preoccupied with other matters to be able fully to understand or to rethink the place of actors – or, indeed, of the arts generally – in school. Some have new and pressing problems of survival at a time when rolls are falling. In addition, the secondary schools are especially concerned with the content of the curriculum and with getting quarts into new (or old) pint pots. Where the arts in the community are concerned, thanks largely to a few individuals – some now in positions of importance and influence both in the arts and in education – some radical thinking is going on, coupled with much good will and a growing understanding of what needs to be done.

About half the companies involved in the original survey seem to be still in action, no better off, but no worse off than they were at the time of the survey itself, doing the same sort of work and reasonably undamaged by cuts and inflation. About a quarter have improved their circumstances – size of team, size of grant, working conditions including salaries, for example – and the other quarter are no longer in existence: they have either died or undergone such a radical change that they have assumed a new identity and function altogether. The most noticeable change is that such companies have gone out of education into the community at large, some of them getting their funds from wider community sources, including Job Creation schemes, Urban Aid projects and the Manpower Services Commission.

Bearing in mind the great variety of types of company and the work they do, the independent touring companies (often very small and 'family') have been the most vulnerable. Their work was as varied as the quality of the companies themselves, and unfortunately the demise of some of them is not in any way related to their quality. Some really good ones have gone out of business altogether. Education cuts clearly hit these independent companies first. Depending solely on fees for income, often needing a guaranteed sum and providing an

'entertainment' rather than something directly educational, the straight plays they performed were the first to go. Some TIE companies have also disappeared, for reasons other than financial ones.

Resilience, adaptability and maturity

On the whole, apart from the individual tragedies, and even bearing in mind that we have all passed or are passing through a period of cuts, the work of actors in schools has shown surprising resilience, adaptability and growing maturity. The 'classical' TIE companies – those dedicated to writing their own programmes, working with just one or two classes of children at the most and (where possible) for more than one visit – have established their own Standing Conference of Young People's Theatre (SCYPT), thanks initially to help from the Gulbenkian Foundation. SCYPT now has its own journal, too, and it has proved to be a useful platform for serious discussions of the companies' work. A library of TIE scripts is in the process of being established at the drama department of Exeter University and there is also a growing recognition of the need to involve more writers and designers of quality, as the survey itself suggested. There is strong evidence that, where financially possible, this is happening.

The nature of the work itself – often dealing with topics of social and political concern – has altered a little in emphasis, though no important TIE principles seem to have been sacrificed. However, some TIE companies now have to tour and perform to larger audiences more than they have ever had to do before. The main reason for this change has definitely been financial stringency, though, ironically enough, where some companies have benefited from considerable support from the local authority or local education authority, there has been perhaps a tendency to be more 'accountable' and literally to 'put on a show' as well as carry on with their other work. Putting on a show – often in the main theatre – is also administratively more convenient than arranging to do it over a term in many different schools. Where cuts have happened the first thing to go has been administrative support, and sometimes for this reason a company has curtailed its touring programme quite drastically.

Move into the community

The biggest shift of emphasis, especially in areas where companies have not been fully used or appreciated by schools, by the local education authority, or both, has been a move into work in the community – in youth workshops, old people's homes, street theatre, and so on. One company referred to above in the 'deaths column' is now touring more widely as a reconstituted community group. A move of this kind into the community must be welcomed, provided that the school is realistically regarded as part of that same community – that is, that such groups still include work in schools as part of their programme. Such a development, in theory at any rate, would go hand-in-hand with schools rethinking their role and their curriculum, especially in the areas of political, social and moral education. At the moment the reality is somewhat different.

Four years ago, at the time of the survey, not a single secondary school head or deputy head was seen to observe a TIE programme in their school in its entirety. This also applied to the great majority of teachers. Sadly, there is no reason to think that circumstances (and perhaps attitudes) are any different today. If, indeed, such is the case the actors' move into community work must be seen as a move out of schools because of indifference and lack of understanding of the work, often by those most closely concerned with curriculum planning.

The positive side

But there have been births too. Since the 1974 survey, at least one more LEA has funded a TIE team from the local regional theatre. The Royal Shakespeare Company (RSC) has renewed its interest in schools, concentrating particularly on the Newcastle area. It is very heartening to note that a national company is thinking freshly about work in schools and in the regions. The Young Vic, too, is considering new approaches in its work with schools. One new team in Swansea (led by the director of a dismantled TIE team in the South-West) has also emerged with the intention of working in schools for several days – up to a week – on some local topic or project.

Nor is this the only example of work in depth for, even at the time of writing, some visits of one week's duration are planned to some ILEA secondary schools by one of its TIE teams. Such work in depth is real pioneering, and the LEA and the head concerned have also been generous with time and money. Working solidly for a week is not just the result of good liaison, it is liaison itself of the best sort – it is, though indirectly, liaison for the *next* project and gives the work a continuity. Planning and working together by actors, teachers and pupils is still all too rare, but it does exist, and examples of such good practice are increasing. Unfortunately, the common ground between actor and teacher that the survey urged all of us engaged in education to explore is not generally being explored. Drama advisers have an important role to play here and too many LEAs still do not have a specialist drama adviser – this includes some Metropolitan Districts where there is much theatre and drama in education.

Nevertheless, we should be thankful for some considerable mercies, especially financial ones. Such a statement as this may seem bitterly ironical to those companies that have suffered extinction or radical metamorphosis, but it is very gratifying to note that some LEAs and local authorities have increased their financial support most generously in the years since the survey. In some cases, the increase in support is so marked that it signifies a definite commitment to this work.

Polarization of attitudes

The picture, however, is still very mixed, revealing a polarization ranging from withdrawal of support by some LEAs and individual theatre boards to a real and significant increase well beyond the demands of inflation. In some areas the local authority, particularly through arts and leisure committees of one sort or another, has begun to contribute significantly, and the Job Creation Scheme in some areas has been used to establish and support such work. At the other end of the scale, one theatre charges its own TIE company £4,000 for administration costs and a further £2,500 for the use of its own centre. Meanwhile the Arts Council of Great Britain is still the great supporter, playing now a kind of balancing role depending on how much a company gets from its local sources. It prefers 'education' to pay its own way for TIE work in schools, at the same time tacitly recognizing that education and the life of the arts in the community cannot really be separated.

Question of survival

There are some very positive gains that could not have been anticipated even a few years ago, but for many companies – whether independent or subsidized – it is above all a question of survival. What is still missing, though eminently desirable, is just a little more room financially for further experiment and, above all, for a longer-term prospect of continuity to allow the links that have been made between actors and teachers to strengthen further.

Trends 1978/4

Survey of the destination of teachers completing initial training courses in 1977 in non-university institutions

D. J. Hodges
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Every autumn from 1970 to 1976, Mr E. G. Peirson, Principal of the Worcester College of Education (later the Worcester College of Higher Education), carried out a survey of the employment situation of those students who had successfully completed initial teacher training courses in the previous summer in non-university institutions in England and Wales (excluding Art Teacher Training Centres (ATTCs) and Colleges of Education (Technical)). The object of these surveys was to monitor, originally on behalf of the Principals' Panel of the Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education, and later on behalf of the National Association of Teachers in Higher and Further Education, the success that newly qualified teachers had had in obtaining teaching posts. In 1975, the Universities Council for the Education of Teachers (UCET) carried out a sample enquiry among University Departments of Education (UDEs), and in 1976 they carried out a full survey.

By the autumn of 1976, the number of people registered with the Department of Employment as unemployed who were seeking jobs as school teachers had risen to very high levels (over 7,000 in September 1976). It was recognized that the Department of Employment's figures did not give a complete picture of the extent of teacher unemployment, and accordingly the Department of Education and Science decided to supplement these figures with information about the extent to which those who had successfully completed initial teacher training courses in the previous summer had been successful in obtaining teaching posts in the autumn.

To the DES it seemed that the most effective way of achieving this objective would be for the Department to be associated with the surveys being carried out by Mr Peirson and UCET. Both agreed to this. However, arrangements for the 1976 surveys, including processing of the returns, had already been made and the main effect of the DES's involvement was that the ATTCs and Colleges of Education (Technical) were asked by DES to complete the questionnaires for non-university institutions that had been drawn up by Mr Peirson. In 1977, however, the DES was able to participate fully in the preliminary discussions leading to the surveys; to obtain agreement for more detailed information to be collected on those who had successfully completed their initial teacher training in 1977 but who were in non-teaching posts or unemployed; and to arrange for the questionnaires for the university and non-university institutions to be in essentials

identical so that the results could, where appropriate, be combined. Because of Mr Peirson's retirement, the DES decided to take over full responsibility for the survey of non-university institutions from the printing of forms to the analysis of the results, while UCET agreed to continue to cover the UDEs.

The DES circulated questionnaires in May 1977 to non-university institutions asking for information to be supplied in the autumn of that year. Separate returns were obtained for courses leading to the Post-Graduate Certificate of Education (PGCE), the Bachelor of Education (BEd) and the Certificate of Education, one-year specialist courses, and courses at ATTCs and Further Education Teacher Training Centres (FETTCs). This article deals only with the DES survey, although for comparative purposes references are made to the results of the UCET survey. Comparisons are also made with the results of the corresponding surveys of those who completed their training in 1976.

Response

Returns were submitted by institutions and covered an output of 29,700 students – 90 per cent of the estimated total output of nearly 33,000 from non-university institutions. The 29,700 were made up of 4,200 with PGCEs, 7,200 with BEds, 16,300 with Certificates of Education* and 2,000 with specialist qualifications. The institutions that submitted returns were unable to provide information about 5,500 students, approximately 18 per cent of the output from those institutions. Because some institutions and students failed to provide information, no information was received on the destination of an estimated 26 per cent of those who successfully completed courses at the non-university institutions. This compares with 10 per cent of those who had qualified at UDEs.

In consequence, a breakdown by destination of the total 1977 output from teacher training institutions can be estimated only by making various assumptions. It is known from actual returns received that 13,900 leavers from non-university institutions had obtained a teaching post of some kind in the UK. If they are added to the 3,300 from UDEs, this gives a figure of 17,200. Similarly, actual returns from non-university institutions revealed 5,500 unemployed and still seeking a teaching post, but fewer than 300 from the UDEs were in that category.

The assumptions made about the breakdown by destination of the 9,000 or so leavers about whom the necessary information is, for one reason or the other, not available from the surveys are crucial to any overall estimate of numbers who had obtained teaching posts – and, of course, of those who found other kinds of job or who remained unemployed. Although those leavers could be allocated to destination categories in proportion to those for whom information was available, there might be characteristics peculiar to those students that would make such a procedure unreliable, and it has therefore not been used in this article.

Differences in destination characteristics

There were some clear differences in the destination characteristics of successful leavers from different types of course. Leavers from non-university PGCE courses had been more successful in obtaining teaching posts than those from BEd courses (which for the purpose of the survey were not subdivided according to length), and they, in turn, had been more successful than those from Certificate of Education courses. As might be expected, smaller proportions from the

* This figure excludes those who proceeded to a BEd course after obtaining the Certificate of Education.

Table 1.

Success of leavers in obtaining teaching posts in the UK according to type of course

Type of course	Percentage about whom further information available who were successful in obtaining teaching posts in the UK	
	1977	1976
[PGCE (university)	77	81]
PGCE (non-university)	71	69
BEd	63	74
Certificate of Education	50	56
One-year specialist	74	..
Further Education Teacher Training Centres	67	89
Art Teacher Training Centres	70	68
Total (excluding UDE PGCEs)	57	63

.. not available.

PGCE courses were still seeking teaching posts, while either unemployed or employed in jobs other than teaching. On the other hand, non-university-trained PGCE students had been less successful in obtaining teaching posts than those with PGCEs from UDEs and a larger proportion were unemployed. Leavers from specialist courses (one-year, FETTCs, and ATTCs) had done rather better than the average in obtaining posts and had proportionally fewer unemployed.

The comparison with the 1976 position (see Table 1) shows that leavers from PGCE and ATTC courses had been about as successful in 1977 as they were in the previous year in obtaining teaching posts, whereas those from BEd, Certificate of Education and FETTC courses had been less successful.

Table 2 shows that the proportion of the 1977 output of PGCEs, Certificates of Education and ATTCs remaining unemployed was lower than that for a year earlier. However, more than a quarter of the 1977 Certificate of Education leavers about whom information was available were still unemployed. The total about whom information was available was in each case smaller in 1977 than in 1976, and so the numbers known to have been unemployed were also in each case smaller: 492 compared with 894 for PGCEs; 3413 and 4577 for Certificate of Education; and 51 and 96 for ATTCs.

On the other hand, the proportions in non-teaching employment were higher than in 1976, as Table 3 shows. In each case, except ATTCs, the actual numbers involved about whom information was available were also larger in 1977 (253 compared with 150 for PGCEs; 650 and 142 for BEDs; 2248 and 896 for Certificates of Education). This may indicate a greater willingness on the part of those leavers who failed to obtain teaching employment to take up other forms of employment.

Training specialisms of those reported as unemployed

Information is available about the training specialisms of 5,200 of the people reported as unemployed and still seeking teaching posts after having successfully completed non-university PGCE, BEd, Certificate of Education, one-year specialist and FETTC courses. (A different

Table 2

Leavers who were unemployed and still seeking teaching employment, according to type of course

Type of course	Percentage about whom further information available who were unemployed and still seeking a teaching post	
	1977	1976
[PGCEs (university)	6	6]
PGCE (non-university)	15	23
BEd	18	18
Certificate of Education	28	34
One-year specialist	10	..
Further Education Teacher Training Centres	18	6
Art Teacher Training Centres	14	17
Total (excluding UDE PGCEs)	23	28

.. not available.

Table 3

Leavers who were in non-teaching employment, according to type of course

Type of course	Percentage about whom further information available who were in non-teaching employment			
	Not at present seeking teaching employment	Still seeking teaching employment	Total in non-teaching employment	
	1977	1977	1977	1976
[PGCEs (university)	5	2	7	4]
PGCE (non-university)	4	4	8	4
BEd	4	7	11	3
Certificate of Education	5	12	17	7
One-year specialist	5	4	9	..
Further Education Teacher Training Centres	5	2	6	1
Art Teacher Training Centres	3	3	6	8
Total (excluding UDE PGCEs)	5	9	14	5*

.. not available.
*Excluding one-year specialist courses.

classification was used for those completing FETTC courses from that used for the others, and ATTCs were excluded from this part of the survey.) Table 4 gives a summary breakdown for the non-FETTC unemployed. This shows that less than half (46 per cent) of the unemployed men and only 16 per cent of the women were trained for secondary/FE teaching, although for PGCEs separately the percentages were 74 per cent for men and 39 per cent for women.

The individual subject specialisms of those trained in the secondary FE sector are given in Table 5 with comparative figures for the UDE unemployed. These are numbers as reported, and are not related to the total in each specialism who successfully completed their course.

The figures show that, overall, the largest block of unemployed were physical education specialists (222), followed by English plus drama/drama and English (172), history (104), home economics (96) and geography (85). Biological sciences had 44 unemployed but figures for the other sciences were relatively small. Other subjects with more than 30 each were: art (39), mathematics (33) (including 16 with PGCEs even though mathematics was still acknowledged to be a shortage subject), religious education (39), sociology group (37), music (33). craft, design and technology (37), and teachers of mentally handicapped or slow learners, and remedial teachers (35). The table shows that there are differences in the bias of subject specialisms of the unemployed between the different types of training course. In particular, physical

Table 4

Training specialisms of leavers reported by training institutions as unemployed and still seeking teaching posts

	Training specialism					
	Secondary/FE		Other*		Total	
	Nos	per-centage	Nos	per-centage	Nos	per-centage
PGCE courses (non-university):						
Men	149	74	53	26	202	100
Women	112	39	178	61	290	100
Men and women	261	53	231	47	492	100
BEd courses:						
Men	105	42	143	58	248	100
Women	151	18	691	82	842	100
Men and women	256	24	834	76	1,090	100
Certificate of Education courses:						
Men	193	37	329	63	522	100
Women	385	13	2,506	87	2,891	100
Men and women	578	17	2,835	83	3,413	100
One-year specialist courses:						
Men	8	80	2	20	10	100
Women	14	61	9	39	23	100
Men and women	22	67	11	33	33	100
Total						
Men	455	46	527	54	982	100
Women	662	16	3,384	84	4,046	100
Men and women	1,117	22	3,911	78	5,028	100

*Nursery, Infant/Junior, Middle (including Junior/Secondary).

Table 5

Training specialisms of secondary/further education teachers reported as unemployed and still seeking teaching posts

	PGCE (non-university)		BEd		Certificate of Education		One-year specialist		Total			PGCE (university for comparison)
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Total	
Mathematics	13	3	2	2	6	7	—	—	21	12	33	10
Biological sciences	9	2	2	5	10	16	—	—	21	23	44	17
Chemistry	4	—	1	4	2	—	—	—	7	4	11	9
Physics	1	3	1	—	3	—	—	—	5	3	8	10
General/combined/integrated sciences	—	—	—	2	1	2	1	—	2	4	6	11
Economics/business studies	7	—	1	—	6	7	—	—	14	7	21	2
Geography	21	11	13	13	13	14	—	—	47	38	85	18
History	34	21	12	11	11	15	—	—	57	47	104	45
Religious education	2	5	1	11	8	12	—	—	11	28	39	6
Sociology/social studies/psychology	13	9	3	7	1	4	—	—	17	20	37	9
Liberal studies/humanities/philosophy	4	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	1	5	14
Music	2	7	2	2	1	11	3	5	8	25	33	3
Drama/drama and English	5	1	3	17	4	13	3	3	15	34	49	—
English	11	27	11	26	11	37	—	—	33	90	123	35
French	2	12	1	4	1	8	—	—	4	24	28	9
Craft, design and technology (handicraft)	1	2	1	13	7	12	—	1	9	28	37	—
Physical education	9	2	41	10	99	61	—	—	149	73	222	—
Art	5	2	3	10	3	34	—	2	11	48	59	11
Home economics	—	2	—	6	—	88	—	—	—	96	96	—
Other subjects	6	2	7	8	6	44*	1	3	20	57	77†	15
Total	149	112	105	151	193	385	8	14	455	662	1,117	224

* Includes 28 teachers of the mentally handicapped.

† Includes 35 remedial teachers and teachers of the mentally handicapped and slow learners. (Some teachers with other specialisms have also received training for dealing with remedial pupils.)

education, art and home economics are relatively scarce among the PGCEs, whereas half of the twenty-eight French specialists had PGCEs.

Mobility of those reported as unemployed

Not all teachers are equally mobile in a geographical sense, and limited mobility may in some cases affect their chances of obtaining teaching employment. Details of mobility were available for only 69 per cent of those leavers reported as unemployed. As might be expected, women are much less mobile than men, the proportions seeking employment anywhere in the UK being lower for women than for men regardless of training course.

Table 6 compares the mobility in 1976 and 1977 of those unemployed from the three largest types of course. Although male mobility increased, female mobility stayed about the same in total, but actually fell for those with PGCEs and Certificates of Education.

Table 6

Percentages of unemployed leavers seeking posts anywhere in UK

Type of course	1977		1976	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
[PGCEs (university)	61	41	..	..]
PGCE (non-university)	62	31	61	38
BEd	61	46	51	36
Certificate of Education	66	39	60	42
Total (excluding UDE PGCEs)	64	40	59	41

..not available.

Non-teaching employment

The occupations were reported of 76 per cent of those in non-teaching employment not at present seeking a teaching post and of 72 per cent of those in non-teaching employment still seeking a teaching post. A wide range of occupations was recorded, but because of the amount of detail only a summary is given in this article.

The occupations reported were grouped under five main headings: occupations allied to education; social services and allied occupations; health service and allied occupations; other public services/industry; commerce/miscellaneous.

As institutions were given complete freedom to attach their own descriptions to occupations, the groupings could not be precise. For example, in the absence of further information, 'clerical' was assigned to 'industry/commerce/miscellaneous' but 'clerical occupations' could be found in one of the public services, say. Whether or not a person was still seeking a teaching post appears to have no bearing on whether their non-teaching employment was in an occupation allied to education: 10 per cent of those not seeking a teaching post and 10 per cent of those still seeking a teaching post entered such occupations. Table 3 shows that only about two-thirds of those in employment outside teaching were still seeking a teaching post (comparable information was not collected in 1976). Those still seeking teaching posts were more inclined to take up posts in the industry/commerce/miscellaneous group, whereas those not at present seeking teaching posts were more inclined to look for occupations in the social and other public services groups.

If 1977 and 1976 are compared two points stand out. First, there was a large increase in numbers, from about 600 to about 2,400, in non-teaching employment, for whom occupational detail was available; and, secondly, although each group increased numerically, there was a relative shift towards the industry/commerce/miscellaneous group (this accounted for 44 per cent of the numbers in 1976 and 65 per cent in 1977) and away from public services (41 per cent in 1976, 25 per cent in 1977) and occupations allied to education (15 per cent in 1976, 10 per cent in 1977).

Trends 1978/4

Expenditure crisis—a solution for education?

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Will the current machinery of financial administration and resource allocation in education remain appropriate in the future? This article looks at the pitfalls of the present system and evaluates one possible alternative – the client group approach.

The 1973/1975 public expenditure crisis seemed to come out of the blue. In the public mind it was connected with the oil crisis of the winter of 1973/74. But was this really so? Fundamental changes are rarely so contingent on particular events. We can say that the main underlying factor giving rise to increasing public expenditure on the social services, especially education, during the 1950s and 1960s was the belief, held by the public at large in support of political action, that such an increase was desirable and beneficial. This expansion was helped by an increasing GNP,* by an increase in the proportion of the GNP devoted to public expenditure as a whole and by a concurrent decline in the proportion of the GNP devoted to defence. In the 1970s the aims and performance of the education service have been questioned, rolls are falling in the schools, other services – e.g. personal social services and pensions – have provided greater competition in claiming their share of the available resources, and the economic conditions of the country have limited the growth in public expenditure. During the 1950s and '60s the proportion of GNP invested in capital formation had steadily risen. (By capital formation we mean investment in houses, both in the public and private sector, in infrastructure such as roads, hospitals, schools, and universities, and in industry.) Such investment had amounted to 13 per cent of GNP in 1956; by 1970 it was over 18 per cent. Investment at this level could only be accommodated comfortably as long as industrial output was rising buoyantly. Once the boom of 1970/73 came to an end, and the oil crisis supervened, the pattern of resource-use came under strain. Since 1974 manufacturing output has been virtually stagnant, and this alone was bound to lead to restraints in public expenditure. The result has been most marked for capital programmes.

* GNP is the gross national product—that is, broadly speaking, the value of goods and services produced by the UK.

It is easier to abandon projects that have not yet started and their capital cost is saved at once. Buildings once started are fairly quickly commissioned and lead to increased recurrent expenditure, but if they are not built this increase is avoided. Immediate cuts in recurrent expenditure, however, are quickly reflected in the service to the public and may very obviously lead to the loss of jobs.

It is not surprising that as living standards failed to rise in line with expectations people began to examine their personal expenditure, and a common target in such circumstances is the level of local government spending and the size of rate demands. Furthermore, in the period from 1963 to 1972 while the economy grew at 2·6 per cent a year, local government expenditure, carried forward increasingly by the momentum of previous years and by the effect of wage settlements in labour-intensive local services, grew at 4·6 per cent. This process could not continue indefinitely – a suggestion reinforced by the failure of the economy to grow at all between 1973 and 1976.

Uncertain value

One of the features of high inflation is the uncertain value of money, and where the value of money is uncertain, expenditure plans are subject to an equal uncertainty and planned numbers of inputs – whether of teachers or caretakers – may cost significantly more or less in real terms than allowed for. There is some evidence that, when the pressure on the resources of the economy is intense, it is in fact difficult to reach planned levels of real expenditure because inflation eats away at budgets. This is particularly true of capital expenditure, one example being the inflation of construction costs that prevented local government plans from being realized in 1973. In practice, it becomes increasingly difficult to push real expenditure ahead when so many sectors of the economy are in competition with one another. One effect of inflation is to cut unrealizable claims on resources down to size – and there is no need to insist on how crude and unfair such a mechanism is – but even before the oil crisis this mechanism was at work on local government expenditure. Of course, one may have the illusion at the time that one is spending more money in real terms, but a *post-facto* analysis reveals that inflation has frustrated the plan.

Raising revenue

Connected with the competitive aspect of public expenditure claims on scarce resources is the problem of the best way to raise revenue. This concerns the balance of taxes between central and local government and the complex interplay of political forces at the two levels. It also concerns the balance between rates (or property tax) and other possible taxes, whether direct – such as a local income tax – or indirect – such as a local sales tax or petrol tax. When the Government set up the Layfield enquiry into local government finance in 1974, it rapidly became involved in all these aspects, as well as in physical resources. It was also much concerned with the problem of responsibility. It seemed clear to Layfield that local government finance was in a state of crisis.

Among the facts that Layfield adduced was that local government collectively spent some £13,000m a year on its work and service to capital debt of some £25,000m. Nearly 3m people were employed in the service of local authorities – of these about 1·5m were employed in the education service. About 36 per cent of current expenditure is spent on education compared with 16 per cent on housing and 8 per cent on health and social services.

Layfield was set up in the middle of the inflation crisis. By the time it reported in March 1976, it was clearly felt that the *malaise* that

had sparked off the enquiry was more than a temporary phenomenon.

There had been a sudden and dramatic increase in the rate of inflation and a sharp decline in the country's general prosperity. From 1970 to 1972 inflation was at a rate of between 6 per cent and 9 per cent. By mid 1975 it had accelerated to an annual rate of 24 per cent. Since wages and salaries tend to rise faster than other costs in the economy, a labour-intensive sector such as local government naturally came under extra strain. It became particularly difficult to forecast accurately either the rate of inflation or the cost of providing services. Any misjudgement would lead to serious difficulties, especially since, within their normal provision for contingencies and reserves, local authorities have only a limited scope for meeting increased expenditure once the rates for the year have been set. In the event, local authorities had to turn to the Government, which provides – through the Rate Support Grant (RSG) – the largest element of their aggregate income. The Government was faced with the choice, either of increasing grants to meet the large, mostly unavoidable, increases in the cost of local services, or of allowing rates to rise to levels that would be bound to cause a public outcry.

The Government's problems were complicated further because the Local Government Act of 1974 changed the basis on which the RSG was distributed in England and Wales in 1974/75. The new basis provided for a greater degree of equalization of resources between authorities than before. This, in turn, would lead to a widening of the differences in rate increases levied by different authorities. The result was a widespread protest that broke out against the local authority financial arrangements of 1974/75.

Rate Support Grant

The RSG is a critical feature of local government finance. For local authorities the amount of grant received is such a large proportion of expenditure that it determines the size of the rate. The difficulties might not be so serious if the amount of grant for the given authority remained fairly constant from year to year. In the last few years, however, the amount has been far from constant and has had a markedly volatile and unpredictable character.

In an example quoted by Layfield of two local authorities with similar increases in expenditure – 35 per cent between 1974/75 and 1975/76 – one was able to reduce its domestic rate poundage by nearly 2 per cent while the other increased its domestic rate poundage by nearly 70 per cent.

Since grants now have a dominant effect on local rates for most authorities, it has to be asked whether any stability can exist in local finances until the unpredictable and volatile nature identified by Layfield has been eliminated. Dependence on the grant has arisen through the inadequacy of the main local source of revenue to meet the ever-growing burden of expenditure.

It was not part of Layfield's terms of reference to judge the burden of local authority expenditure in relation to public expenditure in general or to the economy as a whole. The committee identified temporary factors in the crisis arising out of the inability of existing financial arrangements to cope with the circumstances of the period 1975/76, and it went on to draw attention to long-standing difficulties in the financing of local government even reaching back to 1901. It concluded that a substantial change in arrangements and relations between the two tiers of government was required, broadly in accordance with the rubric 'he who pays the piper calls the tune', and that the tier responsible for spending the money should also be responsible

for raising it by taxation. Although one might come to the conclusion that some, at least, of the committee members considered spending had gone ahead too fast, reference to overall resources was muted. 'First,' it said, 'the change in national fortunes must have some effect on the willingness of the public regularly to accept rate increases of the size of the last two years. Second, if the arrangements for local government finance are to be durable, it cannot be assumed that similar strains may not be imposed on these financial arrangements in the future.'

Cash-led policies

The Government's immediate solution to the resource problem throughout the public sector was to introduce cash-led policies. This meant drawing up budgets with fixed cash ceilings ('cash limits') for particular blocks of expenditure. The procedure requires an accurate forecast of the rate of inflation if physical plans are to be realized. The existence of an incomes policy facilitates this forecast to some extent. But for the longer term, the Government rejected both the alternatives put forward by Layfield – the centralist and the localist solution to where responsibility should lie.

The block grant

The RSG is mainly a block grant by which the Government pays local authorities a certain percentage of relevant current expenditure. For 1978/79 the percentage is 61 per cent compared with 66·5 per cent in 1975/76. Relevant expenditure embraces most of the goods and services supplied by local authorities, including education. The grant itself is composed of three elements – domestic, resources, and needs. The first of these is intended to cushion domestic ratepayers, as opposed to commercial and industrial ratepayers. The second is to compensate those authorities with a below-average rateable base. The third is intended to meet differential need – children, old people, unavoidable extra costs due to sparsity, urban congestion, and outworn social infrastructure.

The grant is, and has been since 1958, a block or unhypothecated grant. This means that there is no certainty that local authorities, individually or together, will spend any given amount on education which – though by far the largest service – is in competition at the local government level with other services. The substitution of a block grant for specific grants in 1958 met with a hostile reception from education interests, but the subsequent sixteen years may come to be seen as a golden age for education. Between 1958 and 1974 local current expenditure on education rose by nearly 5 per cent a year in real terms – a rate far in excess of the growth of the economy.

Now, since the oil crisis, the fears of the education interests have been renewed. Can education maintain its share of limited resources? The question applies at the national level – school rolls are falling fast while numbers of old people are growing. It also applies at the local level, where changes in the distribution formula have made life especially hard for certain local authorities, the more so because of the reduction of the RSG to 61 per cent of relevant expenditure.

There are perhaps two difficult areas in the grant allocation system as far as education is concerned:

1. since the grant is a block grant, for all services together, central government cannot use it to ensure that expenditure on education by individual local authorities is adequate, efficient, or directed towards policies central government favours;

2. the needs formula, which is one determinant of grant allocation, reflects needs only in the broadest sense, testing no more than twelve local authority characteristics (of which three – pupils aged 5–10, pupils aged 11–16, and students aged over 16 – are education-related). The formula is by no means rigid being revised year by year and containing a device to reduce the unpredictability of the results by damping down short-term changes. Many local authorities are content with the system, but some feel that the resulting allocation is somewhat arbitrary and are dissatisfied with it.

Various alternative approaches to 'needs' assessment have been considered, and the remainder of this article is devoted to a discussion of one of these, the 'client group' approach to education expenditure.

The client group approach

The client group approach treats each local authority service in more detail than the broader approaches now in use. It tries to get back to those who are the recipients of the service – in the case of education, to the pupils and students. In essence it is quite simple. The DES receives two types of statistical returns from local authorities: pupil and student numbers, and expenditure. It is possible to construct from these a national unit cost for each client group – nursery pupils, primary and secondary pupils, and further education students. It is DES practice to use such unit costs to make calculations about the effect of particular policies – they are a convenient tool for calculating costs. They refer, however, to a particular financial year, and there are dangers in attaching future number projections to static unit costs, since they can be altered by marginal changes in client numbers.

By multiplying a national unit cost by the numbers of clients in a particular local authority, one gets an assessed expenditure for that authority. This can then be compared with the actual expenditure of that authority, as reported. This is unlikely to coincide with assessed expenditure, often for very good reasons. But an examination of expenditure shows that the number of 'overspenders' must be roughly equal to the number of 'underspenders', using these terms in a purely arithmetical sense. The circumstances of local authorities are so very different as to make it unlikely that they would have the same unit cost. None the less the client group method focuses on deviations from the norm by excluding all expenditure on other services, and it sharpens up differences in their expenditure on education.

The clients

The DES has particularly good data about numbers and has no difficulty in classifying pupils either by age or by institution attended, though there is difficulty at the top of the range where full-time students may move into the part-time and adult category. Its financial information is less good because client expenditure has to be classified over broad headings – nursery school, primary, secondary, and further education. These headings are too broad for certain purposes – for example, to distinguish between the sixth form and the remainder of secondary pupils. There are also difficulties with middle schools, since expenditure on them is entered in the primary or secondary column, according to whether they are deemed to be primary or secondary.

Another difficulty concerns the 16-plus age group. Some are to be found in school sixth forms, others in non-advanced further education. The balance of numbers between these two types of provision varies a good deal between authorities, as does the staying-on rate. Overall, the stayers-on in school are only about 7 per cent of all secondary

pupils, and therefore their effect on total expenditure is relatively small.

Assessing need

The straightforward assessed need, obtained by multiplying local client numbers by national unit costs, was adjusted in the course of this work for a number of factors peculiar to the individual local authority:

the number of under-fives in nursery schools or in nursery classes in primary schools;

the number of pupils educated locally in middle schools, according to whether they are deemed primary or secondary;

the number of pupils over school leaving age in school (but not in non-advanced further education – the distortion is small);

the difference between the local and the national average of teacher salaries;

the extra labour cost of London and a few other authorities.

These adjustments were intended to remove from assessed need any advantage or penalty resulting from a local authority's institutional arrangements, which cannot be altered in the short run. In other words, it narrows the field of possible differences between local authorities, and puts them on the same footing regarding client numbers and institutional arrangements.

The results

The difference between expenditure assessed by this method and actual expenditure was expressed as a percentage. The average difference was 3·5 per cent. This means that in total, client groups accounted for over 96 per cent of expenditure. As many as fifty-two out of eighty-three non-London authorities shared a deviation of less than plus or minus 4 per cent. A few authorities differed by as much as 20 per cent, and in one case (a rural Welsh authority) by 30 per cent. The distribution was positively skewed* and demonstrated that there are few 'underspenders'. The causes of these deviations were not clear. It is possible that historical causes account for some.

Some of the most important causes of high expenditure have nothing to do with the schools as such, but may be explained by geographic and socio-economic characteristics. Sparsity and density are examples of the first, and one-parent families and immigrants of the second. The reduction of the unexplained average residual deviation to 4 per cent was encouraging and it was decided to try to reduce this still further by applying regression analysis to geographic and socio-economic variables. A number of different packages or equations were tried, including such factors as one-parent families, population decline, and sparsity. With the most favourable of these equations, 50 per cent of the outstanding variation was explained. The equations were particularly successful in explaining the expenditure of authorities with a high degree of sparsity.

Although the total deviation was reduced, the deviation of some authorities was increased – squeezing the balloon at one end pushes it out at the other. There still remains a handful of what might be called tenacious 'overspenders' and 'underspenders'. What can be said about these? First, level of service might be involved – 'overspenders' would certainly claim that they offer a superior service. Second, efficiency may be involved – 'underspenders' would certainly

* i.e. it contained more items above the mean than below it.

claim that they were efficient. There is no assurance, however, that quality of service is closely related to levels of spending.

Some conclusions

What conclusions can be drawn from this work? Some are positive. For example:

expenditure on education is closely correlated with numbers of clients;

the client group approach is normalizing – that is to say, subject to certain important adjustments. It starts from the presumption that individual local authorities ought not to deviate far from national unit costs, but it allows, of course, for deviations where these can be justified objectively;

although most local authorities would not be greatly penalized or rewarded if needs assessment were made on this basis, there are a handful of authorities at each end of the spending spectrum which could not come into line without experiencing difficulty;

subject to this reservation and within its limits, the client group approach is more rational than the present system, since it relates expenditure and grant explicitly to the volume of the service in question and to the number of clients involved;

where there are falling rolls and competing claims on resources by other services within the block grant, it would assist the education service to establish its claim to a proper share of the resources available.

Some are negative:

Many local authorities would regard it potentially as a breach of the block grant principle and therefore a threat to their autonomy;

individual local authorities with expenditure above the average would certainly regard it as a threat – they would claim that it does not meet their needs.

It must be conceded, however, that in spite of a considerable amount of work in the wake of the Layfield Report, of which the client group approach is a notable part, opinion remains sharply divided both within government departments and between local authorities. The present 'needs' formula occupies the position of an unloved necessity. Some of its advocates have used arguments in favour of the client group approach to support their own case: the fact that local authorities have been able to achieve the high correlation between expenditure on education and numbers of clients demonstrates, according to them, that the existing methods have not worked too badly.

The future

It seems likely that a quarter of a century of great world economic expansion has come to an end, and that we have entered an era of more modest economic growth at home and abroad. The post-war period has dominated our experience and has defined our expectations. It has permitted what might be regarded as a golden age of education expansion. It is unlikely that the machinery of financial administration and resource allocation that we have known will be appropriate in the future. Changes have already taken place, such as the substitution of cash-led policies for volume-led policies. More changes are likely in order to secure a better approximation of needs and resources. A client group approach is a candidate that may have a future.

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

Council of Europe

1979 has been designated the International Year of the Child, and the Council for Cultural Cooperation (CCC) has planned a conference entitled 'From birth to eight: young children in European Society in the 1980s' as its main contribution to the year's activities. The conference will be held towards the end of the year in the Palais de L'Europe, Strasbourg, and will be attended by about 250 participants, representing Ministries responsible for education, culture, family affairs and social welfare. It is hoped that there will also be observers from governmental and non-governmental organizations with an interest in the care and education of young children.

The aims of the conference are:

- to disseminate information on the Council of Europe's work on pre-school education;
- to identify the needs of young children in European society in the 1980s;
- to suggest improvements in the ways in which parents and the community meet these needs;
- to discuss how to involve parents and the whole community in a dialogue and action for the benefit of the child;
- to adopt a Declaration on the care and education of children of pre-school age in Europe based on the findings of the CCC's work and the discussions at the conference;
- to identify subjects for future cooperation in pre-school and primary education at European level.

The conference will include some lectures in plenary session, but a large part of the programme will consist of working groups, where the following subjects will be discussed: children with priority needs; how parents and professionals are provided with the means to play their role in the care and education of young children; the rights of the child; and community involvement and parental participation in pre-school services.

Throughout the conference careful consideration will be given to the Council of Europe's work on pre-school education. Following the Venice Symposium (11–16 October 1971) and the Leyden Symposium (8–13 October 1973), the first of which discussed 'Aims, methods and problems in pre-school education' and the second 'The training of teaching staff engaged in pre-school education', the Council of Europe thought it important to study the transition from pre-school to the first years of primary education. A symposium was therefore held in Versailles (24–29 November 1976) on 'The link between pre-school and primary education'. In the same year a symposium was held (Berlin, 6–11 December 1976) on 'The integration of migrants' children into pre-school education', a subject that is pertinent to many member states. It was a logical development in the work to look next at 'Links between pre-school and primary education – the establishment of continuity' (Bournemouth, 20–26 March 1977). The final symposium (Storlien, 11–16 September 1977) considered 'Pre-school education for children living in sparsely populated areas'.

Much valuable work has been carried out in the field of pre-school education by the Council of Europe and it is hoped that the sixth aim of the conference at Strasbourg this year 'to identify subjects for future cooperation on pre-school and primary education at European level' will become a reality and the work will continue.

All the documents mentioned in this article may be obtained free by applying to Mrs. E. Edwards-Amoroso, Council of Europe, Palais de l'Europe, Strasbourg, France.

Rosemary W. Peacocke

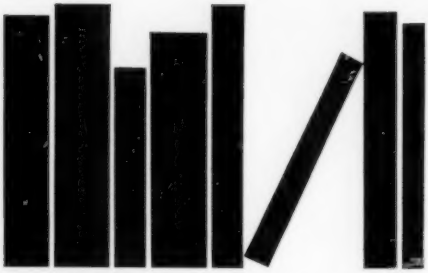
Basic education statistics

Public Sector in England and Wales and Universities in Great Britain

		1966–67[1]	1974–75[1]	1975–76[1]	1976–77[1]
Schools					
Nursery:	Number of schools	464	612	631	648
	Number of pupils (thousands)	29	48	50	52
Primary[2]:	Number of schools	22,831	22,280	23,353	23,364
	Number of pupils under 5 (thousands)	211	400	438	425
	Number of pupils aged 5 and over (thousands)	4,298	4,794	4,727	4,660
	Pupil/teacher ratio[3]	27·9	24·2	23·9	23·8
Secondary[4]:	Number of schools	5,729	5,035	4,982	4,988
	Number of pupils (thousands)	2,833	3,827	3,936	4,039
	Percentage in comprehensives[4]	14·4	69·7	75·6	79·9
	Pupil/teacher ratio[3]	18·2	17·2	17·0	17·0
Special:	Number of schools	797	1,489	1,505	1,541
	Number of pupils (thousands)	69	123	125	127
School leavers:	Percentage with				
	No GCE or CSE attempts	49·0*	18·0	15·6	14·2
	5 or more higher grade O-level/CSEs[5], but no A-levels	8·0	9·0	9·0	9·2
	2 or more A-levels	11·8	12·2	12·7	12·4
Teachers	Full-time in maintained nursery, primary and secondary schools	295,948	419,999	432,014	436,296P
	Full-time in further education colleges[6]	46,161	70,147	72,595	73,091P
Major establishments of further education[7] –total enrolments (thousands)		1,801·3	1,949·8	2,031·1	1,922·0
of which					
Full-time and sandwich		286·8	437·8	486·2	501·2
Part-time day		711·9	726·9	743·3	702·6
Evening only		802·5	785·1	801·6	718·2
Percentage of full-time and sandwich students in polytechnics		..	18·9	20·1	22·7
University students in Great Britain (thousands)[8]		184·2	250·6	261·3	271·8
Open University students in United Kingdom (thousands)[9]		..	53·8	56·0	61·2
Participation in full-time education[10] (as a percentage of age group)					
2–4 school[11]		11·0	21·8	24·7	25·7
16–18 school and further education college[12]		22·9	35·6	36·1	37·8
19–20 further education colleges[13]		4·2	8·2	8·1	8·8
universities		4·5	6·5	6·6	6·7
Expenditure[14]					
Total: at constant (1977 survey) prices[15] £million		4,540	6,605	6,706	6,746P
as percentage of Gross National Product[16]		4·7	6·3	6·4	6·2

[1] Academic year. [2] Including middle deemed primary schools and immigrant centres. [3] Ratios take account of the full-time equivalent of part-time teachers and count each part-time pupil as 0·5. For 1974–75 *et seq* only qualified teachers are included. [4] Including middle deemed secondary schools. [5] O-level grades A–C and CSE grade 1. [6] Maintained and assisted colleges only (including former colleges of education). [7] Maintained assisted and grant-aided. [8] Full-time students only. [9] Undergraduate, postgraduate and post-experience. [10] In maintained, direct grant and independent establishments. [11] Each part-time pupil counted as one. [12] Including teacher training colleges and universities. [13] Including teacher training colleges. [14] Financial years data. [15] England and Wales. [16] United Kingdom public expenditure on education (including school meals and milk) as a percentage of GNP at market prices. P Provisional. * Estimated.

Detailed statistics of education (in seven annual volumes) are on sale at HMSO bookshops. Summary statistics (facts cards) relating to each of the seven volumes are available free on request from the DES Statistics Branch (Telephone 01–928 9222 ext 2776).



Book Reviews

Educational reform for a changing society: anticipating tomorrow's schools
Louis Rubin (editor)
Allyn and Bacon £11·25 hardback

Experimental education for pupils aged 10–14. A report of the European Contact Workshop held in Austria in December 1976 by the Committee for Educational Research of the Council of Europe Council for Cultural Co-operation
John Eggleston (editor)
Swets and Zeitlanger 37·50 Dutch guilders

The changing society of the first book is that of the USA. Essays of varying length and profundity concern themselves with ideas about educational policy rather than with research-based analysis of actual school practice. Writers include Buckminster Fuller, Jonas Salk, a senator, and a member of the House of Representatives.

The editor is an educationist with a strong urge to educate the public about education. He tries to hold together his contributors – who reflect highly diverse fields of knowledge – by the insertion of a commentary evaluating each essay. These efforts are not sparing of words, but this reader found them helpful and encouraging. His general attitude is cautious and deflationary: 'we must resist the temptation to mount immense and corpulent programs on a national scale . . . we must confine our endeavours to short-term efforts that bear directly on manifestly intolerable situations. In support of this editorial advice Ralph Tyler produces an elder statesman's review of what American public education has achieved and where its weaknesses now lie'.

Of the earlier essays pleading for educational change designed to offset the effects of social change, Urie Bronfenbrenner's is the longest and most impressive. His main contention is that the way Americans live today is destroying the functional efficiency of the family. This affects the development and behaviour of the nation's children in a manner insufficiently understood and potentially dangerous to the nation's future. This has, of course, been felt by critics of other societies at other points in history. In our own times, however, communities that have invested heavily in institutions of social welfare expect the remedies to come not, for instance, from some awakening of individual conscience but from switches in their investment programme. It is characteristic of advanced societies that more resources are devoted to schools and hospitals and less to the support of the family within the home. Yet research in this country (Peaker and Halsey for instance) and in the USA (Coleman and Jencks) has shown that the social context of the family is a greater educational factor than the school. High rates of inflation and of taxation appear to undermine the competence of the family, and children lose the benefits of what were once secure protective strongholds.

Bronfenbrenner suggests that the most important single factor affecting the welfare of his nation's children is the social status of women. In this country the influence of women and the woman's point of view in public life seems now to be in decline. Corporations and labour unions are in the ascendancy. Though schools and hospitals are largely dependent on women's labour, they are subject to the political and economic controls of a man's world. Thus the social and educational reforms demanded by Bronfenbrenner seem to require a transfer of power to give more weight to the aspirations of women in society and less to those of men.

The second book is a Council of Europe publication consisting of papers read at a recent 'contact workshop'. Though nothing startingly new seems to have emerged, the research throws some interesting light on educational practice and also on the initial prejudices found in a number of countries. Unlike the Americans, these contributors are looking backwards into an immediate past during which changes in school systems were planned and, in varying degree, carried out. The only English contributor is Professor Eggleston who is responsible for a general introduction as well as a short summary of ideas and developments in this country.

What has principally united European countries in their reforms appears to have been the desire to provide a more elaborate education with more options, paths or tracks

open to a greater number of young people. To realize these intentions it has generally been necessary to make structural changes in the social system and to induce teachers to adopt new teaching procedures. If education was really to become an open-ended process, then the kind of preparation needed to take advantage of it must begin in the junior school. The Americans are much worried about preoccupation with literacy and traditional learning at the expense of what tends to be called a problem-solving approach. But really able teachers go for traditional learning and for problem-solving skills. There need be no conflict and certainly no either/or about this.

It remains to be seen, of course, how well teachers will adapt themselves to new conditions and how far the gains of the comprehensive school system will outweigh the losses. Follow-up research on the advantages and disadvantages of the comprehensive school has been extensive in Europe, but no one seems to have solved the methodological problems raised. If the main aim of school reform has been to distribute educational opportunity more fairly, then there are some grounds for reporting success; but the quality of the education on offer is a different matter. It has been suggested that we might do better to think of the child's passage through school as an end in itself rather than as a means to some other end.

Thus research studies of the future might be more concerned with individual children and their teachers, less with types or groups; and the language of research might occasionally be nearer to that of a novelist than to that of a management consultant.

DAVID HOPKINSON

Class and merit in the American high school. An assessment of the revisionist and meritocratic arguments

Richard A. Rehberg and Evelyn R. Rosenthal

Longman £5·95 paperback

This is essentially a report on a longitudinal survey of 2,788 students in seven school systems in Broome County, New York, commencing in 1967. The study began when the students were in the ninth grade and continued until a number of them had entered college. The main object of the survey was to determine the relative importance, for the students' careers, of educational and social factors.

The book opens with an analysis of the 'meritocratic' and 'revisionist' view of education. The former, while recognizing the importance of social influences, sees the school programme as the major determinant of the student's success in life, and as a major way of getting rid of inequalities in society by offering all students equal opportunities. It applies three criteria for success – tests of intelligence, tests of academic achievement, and the recognition of 'ambition' (the main indicator of which is the aim to enter higher education). The revisionist sees the school as the means by which society maintains the social inequalities necessary for the preservation of a capitalist society. He identifies four ways in which the school underlines and perpetuates the social class differences of its students – by the 'hidden' curriculum, by 'tracking' (or, as we would say, 'streaming'), by guidance counselling (which, he argues, reinforces the student's own class-based levels of expectation) and by grading and evaluation (which confirm the positive correlation between middle-class values and academic success).

A series of models was devised to illustrate the direct and indirect causal effects of such variables as the occupation of the father, the father's and mother's education, the student's scholastic ability, his educational ambition, the influence of his peers, the advice of the school, etc.

In the ninth grade (designated the 'year of exploration') the survey attempted to define the main determinants of the students' choice of curriculum and his educational goal or expectation. Not more than about 20 per cent of the variance of the former could be attributed to the total effect of social class, scholastic ability and interpersonal influences (of parents and peers), though ability counted for more within that 20 per cent than social class. In the case of the student's ambition, only about 50 per cent of the variance was accounted for by the same factors, with social class now assuming a more important role – especially for male students.

In the tenth grade, 'curriculum location' (the course chosen or followed) and perceived educational encouragement from school counsellors were the main outcomes whose causes were analysed. The following year academic achievement was the main criterion. In the twelfth grade it was the decision of the student whether to continue his or her education beyond high school. The final

outcome to be studied was the student's entry into college.

The balance of evidence showed that the main determinant of entry into college was not social class but the student's earlier decision to seek college entry, his academic achievement and his scholastic ability. The revisionists are routed and the meritocrats end up triumphant.

This is an interesting and readable report – a model, indeed, of the way in which a highly sophisticated piece of research can be presented to the general reader. This reviewer is not, alas, qualified to evaluate the statistical tools used, and in particular the validity of the causal models on which the argument rests. But there remains a nagging doubt whether the step from displaying a correlation to inferring causality is fully justified. And, however sophisticated the statistical technique may be, one reader remained less than wholly convinced that it is ever possible to separate out and quantify the individual effects of so many interacting influences, without undue dependence upon a model that not only simplifies but also distorts reality. The fact that the majority of all students in college are middle-class is in the end more telling than the analysis that indicates that scholastic ability is 1·33 times more consequential for college entry than social class for males (rather less for females). The conclusion is a shade facile – the meritocratic/revisionist debate cannot be resolved quite so easily. But the account of the procedure and the incidental store of information about this substantial group of pupils makes it eminently worth reading. It is perhaps a case, by no means unique, where it is better to travel hopefully . . . .

BRIAN KAY

Growing and learning: children's growth and care of their health and intellect

John Brierley

Ward Lock Educational £5·00 hardback, £2·50 paperback

The subtitle of this short book, *Children's Growth and Care of their Health and Intellect*, indicates what is perhaps its most distinctive contribution to the non-technical literature on child development, namely that it describes the close links between physical and particularly brain growth and intellectual development. Attention is also given to such issues as the influence of genetic and environmental factors, as well as to emotional and educational aspects. However, to quote the author himself, 'the main theme is the care of the young brain and intellect'; and his aim has been 'to identify the physical and intellectual needs of the young child and to suggest ways of meeting them'.

Though the book is intended mainly for parents of young children, I suspect the only part they will find really useful is the six-page summary entitled, 'some suggestions to help your child'. Otherwise both its format and presentation – such as the inclusion of quite a number of tables and figures – will make it far less appealing to the average father or mother than to nursery nurses, playgroup leaders and others working with the under-fives. The book also provides a good introduction for those students and professional workers who ought to have some knowledge of the areas covered as a basic background for their main interests and expertise – for example, social workers and those teachers concerned with primary and secondary pupils.

Perhaps because of the need to be concise, there are a number of generalizations, some of which are rather misleading. When discussing the part played respectively by heredity and environment, for example, Dr Brierley states, 'Most of us live in environments that have been created for us by our own type; most gravitate instinctively towards an environment that suits body and mind'. Surely this is meaningless for handicapped, socially disadvantaged, or abused children, or for those living in one-parent families? Yet as many as 25 per cent may be affected by one or more of these conditions. And although this generalization may have some validity for adults, surely it has little or none as far as young children are concerned.

These are, however, minor blemishes in a book that is readable, relatively free of jargon, and practical and preventive in orientation.

MIA KELLMER PRINGLE

Director, National Children's Bureau

Learning later: fresh horizons in English adult education

Enid Hutchinson and Edward Hutchinson

Routledge and Kegan Paul £6·95

Learning Later contains a great deal of interesting material on adult education in one ILEA institute, but whether or not it warrants nearly four-fifths of a book is another matter. The remaining section – included I feel because either the second half of the authorship wanted to get a word in,

or because the publishers felt that some reference to a national background was necessary – is a lively review of recent trends.

In some ways, it is a pity that the person who conceived the 'fresh horizons' programme at the City Literacy Institute should have found it necessary to write at length about the experience. It would surely have been of greater value if an independent person had attempted to evaluate this experience in adult education alongside similar initiatives. As it is, the author(s) writes uncritically of the former while having a swipe at virtually everything else. After all, 'fresh horizons' was no more than a course designed primarily for women (a few men enrolled but who would not sympathize with them in the face of a monstrous regiment of better educated women dominating the class?) who appeared willing to accept a fairly narrow package of subjects – English (literature and language), social studies, speech and drama and mathematics – as an alternative to following a course of GCE subjects. That it appeared to succeed in attracting students was due as much to the willingness of ILEA to support students with awards as to anything else.

Whether or not such a course would appeal to adults wishing to return to study today, especially those living outside of London, must be doubtful. Despite this, *Learning Later* should be read by people interested in continuing recurrent education, if only because it shows how quickly events overtake the views of any one group of people. The chapter on 'Alternative routes' is a must.

M. L. GULLON

World faiths in education

W. Owen Cole

Allen and Unwin £6·50

This book is a collection of essays which, the introduction tells us, are 'an attempt to put world religions in their total school context'. Since nearly half of the contributions, and six of the first nine, are by the editor himself, the whole thing reads more like a continuous line of argument with occasional interruptions than most collections do.

The contributions are arranged in three sections. The first deals with general issues arising out of the teaching of world religions as part of religious education. Here, the discussion of the problem of commitment is likely to prove helpful, since it is a concern of many teachers at the present time. The second, the largest section, discusses method and content. The third offers a Humanist, Muslim and Jewish comment on religious education, includes chapters on Buddhism and Marxism, with some suggestions about the way they might be taught, and provides useful biographies. The Humanist insight, a philosophical treatment of the implications of the necessary agnosticism of the county school in matters of religion, is a valuable discussion document that can serve as well for political as for religious education.

The final chapter points out the formidable task confronting teachers who must be loyal to both the diverse religious experience of mankind and the individual experience of children. The aim of religious education will be to initiate people into that diversity and into the richness of the human being; the teaching of world religions will be a proper and necessary part of the process.

Altogether this is a useful addition to the staffroom library.

J. G. GOULDING

The primary teacher in action

Deanne Boydell

Open Books £4·95 hardback, £1·95 paperback

This is a short, non-technical but nevertheless analytical illustration of primary school practice. Its main appeal to the profession will undoubtedly be that it is based upon precise classroom observation. The author's intention of forging links between theory and practice, between researcher and teacher, is largely achieved through the skilful presentation of identifiable aims and objectives. Some observations in this book may cause teachers to reappraise their work and become more critically aware of classroom techniques. The chapter on self-fulfilling prophecy is intriguing in its argument and presents an enlightened slant on discussion about expectation and standards in primary schools. There are forthright comments about the delicate balance between individual attention and teachers' intuitive but possibly inaccurate or biased assessment of pupils that will provoke discussion in staffrooms and colleges. The ingredient of post-Plowden comment is equally well judged and the balanced consideration of the implications and effects of formal and informal methods, and of group achievement and organization, will be appreciated by teachers. Plowden Bennett comparisons run throughout the text to good effect. Many will enjoy the practical nature of the book, particularly in

the sections on the organization and aims of the classroom, with its realistic emphasis upon strategies involving the use of physical and material resources and their influence upon the adult/child contact.

Deanne Boydell's skill at the open question and at prompting further enquiry from her reader is well supported by a full bibliography and annotations in the text. The book, appearing almost in concert with the publication of *Primary Education in England* (HMSO 1978), could hardly be more appropriate, for the findings and recommendations of the survey are underpinned by much of this publication, which should be an asset to the staffroom bookshelf.

R. R. Weir

Research perspectives on the transition from school to work

Guy Neave (editor)

Council of Europe £7·60 paperback

Although there are some papers in this collection presented at a workshop organized by the Institut d'Education that deal with the methodology of research, the majority can, and should, be read by anyone involved in the education of the 16–19 age group. The editor, in his introduction, emphasizes the comparative lack of attention given to the vocational aspects of education, especially for the 16-plus group.

Many of the conclusions reached have an importance for all types of 16-plus education. As Neave points out – and other writers underline his premise – education and training for this group ought to be individual-centred. The needs, perception and motivation of the student should be the point of departure in any curriculum planning. Edmund King, another contributor, expands this thesis, and emphasizes the gap between the traditional establishments and the generic newness of the students. He also points to the absurdity of the assumption that one is either a learned man or a man of action – an assumption which bedevils our society. The papers by Sellin and Holt add further impressive weight to the argument that new approaches are needed, and the summaries at the ends of their sections are helpful.

The most important theme to emerge from this book is that, given the rapidly changing world into which the 16-plus is entering, the old methodologies and the old institutional forms are simply inadequate. As King says, we must prepare today's students for repeated adaptations and decision-making; those concerned with the education of this group are beginning to be re-educated, and must remember that by the very nature of the students' situation, they live in a world which is beyond us. Their horizons stretch outside existing educational provision, and the old answers are no longer valid.

C. B. Carr

Curriculum change in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries

Peter Gordon and Denis Lawton

Hodder and Stoughton £12·50 hardback, £5·75 paperback

The politics of curriculum change

Tony Belcher and Stuart Maclure

Hutchinson £2·95 paperback

Power and the curriculum: issues in curriculum studies

Colin Richards (editor)

Nafferton Books £2·95

It is no coincidence that three such books have appeared in quick succession; they are books of our time: the era of the Great Debate, of falling rolls, large and intractable national problems – all of which are a very long way indeed from the golden, resource-blowing and naive age of curriculum development less than ten years ago.

The ample and detailed work of Gordon and Lawton is an effective scene-setter for those wishing to get to the heart of the curriculum debate. This is because the matter is treated historically, drawing its theme from developments in the last two hundred years. Throughout the book the authors cover familiar ground, but they relate the chronicle carefully and clearly to the central question of curriculum, starting by surveying reports and legislation, demonstrating that the Eldon judgement (1805) or the Revised Code (1862) or the familiar catalogue of commissions (Taunton, Newcastle, etc.) manifested contemporary assumptions, and yet also accelerated new developments by their influence on school curricula. Similarly, the authors survey social theories, pedagogic fashions and the influence of pressure groups.

There is an intriguing section where individual subjects have their case-histories analysed: the histories of English, of mathematics, home economics or social studies sharpen the main and abiding theme of the book, that we are all (to adapt Keynes)

slaves of defunct philosophers, both of the academic and cracker-barrel kinds, one might add. Gordon and Lawton's work is expensive, but well produced and generously illustrated and with a high meat-to-waffle ratio, unusual in educational literature.

The historical perspective is absolutely essential to curriculum discussion. It will remind us that 'time honoured' arrangements are often of very recent origin, for example the notion that the state has 'never' intervened in curricular matters. It will also demonstrate that the curriculum has only been perceived or treated as a 'secret garden' by minority groups at distinct historical stages. It has become, and must remain, a public matter; it could not be otherwise in a country aspiring to be a democracy as opposed to an oligarchy or a pedagocracy.

This last consideration suggests the concept of the 'public curriculum' put forward as a working definition by Belcher and Maclure. They also do some historical scene-setting, although they are mainly concerned with current developments. This public curriculum is the system's 'shared assumptions . . . about the main things which pupils should do and learn at school', although the authors detect a certain 'vacuum' interfering with the effectiveness of the transmission process in English conditions. Where Gordon and Lawton put the matter in time-perspective, Belcher and Maclure put it in a spatial one. We are given a curricular tour of Europe in which it is made clear that curricular intervention by public authorities, far from being an instrument of sinister and totalitarian states, is the norm in our democratic neighbours. A well-known feature of English 'curriculum' development was subject-syllabus development, which the authors describe as a path of least resistance through the elaborate and dense curriculum problem (or perhaps away from it?). This gradualism may have had its attractions, but it never worked out an effective strategy, having tried what the authors categorize as 'research, development and diffusion', 'social interaction' and 'problem-solving' models. Their suggestion for a 'judicious amalgam' hardly commands confidence.

The series of papers edited by Colin Richards is more concerned with the mechanics of curriculum change and how these are related to day-to-day constraints – power structures, falling rolls, the hidden curriculum (or 'paracurriculum' in Hargreaves' phrase) and the problems of dissemination and evaluation.

It is not surprising that thirteen such papers vary quite widely in quality and approach. Martin Lightfoot's 'Educational consequences of falling rolls' is well grounded empirically, whereas Christopher Ormell's 'Is there a hidden curriculum in mathematics?' is speculative and provoking – albeit couched in spiky prose and sprinkled with obscure allusions to Wittgenstein and C. S. Peirce. William Taylor makes a critique of the 'New Criticism', putting his finger on its weakest point – an unambitious record of prescription standing in strong contrast to its more trenchant social analysis. There are some revealing and frank case studies, such as Alan Blyth *et al*, on the Schools Council's Social Sciences 8–13 project.

Taken together these three seasonal works provide important material for curricular decision-makers. We are reminded that the curriculum differs as to place and time, responds to changes in ideology, technology and the state of knowledge. All three books discern centripetal tendencies at work again, forces which will have to meet considerable institutionalized complication and inertia. Having read these books, as well as the 'Red Book' and the 'Green Paper', one asks not only, 'What is to be done?' but – equally to the point – 'By whom?'

R. A. S. Hennessey

The moral situation of children

J. R. Ungoed-Thomas

Macmillan Education £7·95 hardback

After a decade of research and curriculum development in moral education by the two Schools Council Moral Education Projects, the onus is now upon schools to decide upon their own pattern of implementation. The moral situation of children represents the final stage of this important contribution, being the concluding report of the 8–13 Moral Education Project.

Essentially the book seeks to fulfil two main functions: to provide a thorough analysis of the research techniques and evaluation; and to give anyone concerned with children a fascinating and sometimes disturbing insight into a child's world, in the same way that the Project sought to establish the salient features of the moral situation in which children function before classroom materials are prepared.

In a National Survey, involving 43 schools

and 8,475 pupils, the children were given three questions to which they were asked to respond by writing and/or drawing. The first question concentrated upon a time when the child felt pleased or happy; the second referred to a time when the child felt frightened, angry or unhappy; and the third question asked the pupil to describe a time when he/she was uncertain what to do.

The results are presented in the form of statistical analyses and include many quotations from the replies. A comprehensive assessment of the various types of answer is provided, but in this respect there are inevitable repetitions and overlaps that sometimes make logical assessment somewhat difficult. Nevertheless the extracts from the answers provide an absorbing and challenging picture of the position, thoughts and feelings as expressed by the children themselves, rather than the rigid application of an authoritarian's code to that world.

All teachers using the Project's 'Startline' material should be encouraged to read this book, at least the chapters so helpfully and realistically identified as being of most immediate practical value. But it is to be hoped that many more, both professional educators and parents, will stay with the book long enough to appreciate that it is not only a research study, but also a provoking description of the needs, feelings and interests of children approaching adolescence.

K. J. McWILLIAMS
Senior Adviser, Cheshire LEA

'Homemaking With Gas' Teaching Aid

The British Gas Education Service has launched a series of assignment cards under the general title, 'Homemaking with Gas'. The cards are designed to encourage students of fourteen to sixteen years of age to think about the practical aspects of making a home.

The first set in the series, introduced after school trials, deals with kitchen planning. The set comprises three assignments: starting a new kitchen; improving an old kitchen, and adapting a kitchen for a disabled person. The assignments have been personalized to stimulate imaginative interest in each situation. Students can, for example, identify with Jan, a social worker, who must advise a client in a wheelchair on how best to adapt her kitchen. Skills such as measuring, planning, purchasing, evaluation and costing need to be applied to resolve the various situations.

Each four-page card is produced in full colour and laminated for durability. The floorspace and walls of each 'problem' kitchen are shown in detail by a specially devised picture-plan drawn to scale. Each card is supplied with Teachers' Notes and a set of five planning sheets for setting out the solutions to the assignment. Replacement sets of planning sheets are available free of charge.

The cards are priced at £0·38 each or £1.00 for the set of three. Orders must be accompanied by cash payment and cheques and postal orders made out to 'British Gas'. Requests should be sent to: Education Liaison Officer, Room 414 (HG), British Gas, 326 High Holborn, London WC1V 7PT.

Details of a film, teaching kit and leaflets which could be used in conjunction with the assignment cards are given in the Education Service Catalogue, available free from the above address.

ADDITIONAL BOOKS RECEIVED

Children as writers 5. Heinemann Educational, £1·50.

ANSTIS, R. D., S. H. E. FISHLOCK and C. E. STAFFORD. *Practical business education: an integrated approach. Book* 1. Macdonald and Evans, £3·50.

BRITISH MUSEUM. *Nature at work.* Cambridge University Press, £6·50 (£2·50 paperback).

CAREERS AND OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION CENTRE OF THE MANPOWER SERVICES COMMISSION. *Mathematical, statistical and computer work. Choice of Careers* 109. HMSO, £0·50.

CONFERENCE OF UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATORS: GROUP ON FORECASTING AND UNIVERSITY EXPANSION. *Final Report* 1978. Conference of University Administrators, £1·50 (obtainable from M. G. E. Paulson-Ellis, Financial Secretary, Conference of University Administrators, The Registry, University of East Anglia, Norwich NR4 7TJ).

COOPER, CARY L. and CLAYTON ALDERFER. *Advances in experimental social processes: Volume* 1. Wiley, £9·25.

COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY. *Microelectronics: their implications for education and training.* A statement by the Council for Educational Technology. Council for Educational Technology, free.

DOWNEY, MERIEL and A. V. KELLY. *Moral education: theory and practice.* Harper and Row, £4·95 (£2·75 paperback).

GOOD, THOMAS L. and JERE E. BROPHY. *Looking in classrooms* (second edition). Harper and Row, £5·15.

GORDON, CECILIA. *Resource organization in primary schools: guidelines* 5. Council for Educational Technology/School Library Association, £3·75.

HUXLEY, D. R. *Making films in super eight: a handbook for primary and secondary teachers.* Cambridge University Press, £3·75.

JOINT ASSOCIATION OF CLASSICAL TEACHERS. *Reading Greek. Grammar, vocabulary and exercises.* Cambridge University Press, £4·00.

JOINT ASSOCIATION OF CLASSICAL TEACHERS. *Reading Greek. Text.* Cambridge University Press, £2·95.

KRISHNAMURTI, J. *Beginnings of learning.* Penguin, £0·95.

LANE, JOHN et al. *Arts centres: every town should have one.* Elek, £6·25.

LE PELLEY, PAMELA. *Go to work on a brain train: the story of an experiment on British Rail in cooperative learning.* Mutual Aid Press, £1·00 (available from Mutual Aid Centre, 18 Victoria Park Square, London E2 9PF).

LOCKE, MICHAEL. *Traditions and controls in the making of a polytechnic: Woolwich Polytechnic* 1890–1970. Thames Polytechnic, £4·95.

LOCKWOOD, E. H. and R. H. MACMILLAN. *Geometric symmetry.* Cambridge University Press, £10·50.

MABERLY, NORMAN C. *Mastering speed reading.* New English Library, £0·95.

MAYNARD, CHRISTOPHER. *Exploring the great ice age.* Pan Books, £0·60.

MEADOWS, R. G. *Technician electronics.* Cassell, £3·50.

NATIONAL UNION OF TEACHERS. *Differentials in educational provision: a working party report by the Executive to Conference* 1978, *Blackpool.* National Union of Teachers, free.

NELSON, RICHARD R. *Innovation and implementation in public organizations.* Lexington Books, £12·75.

PERRY, P. J. C. *The evolution of British Manpower policy from the Statute of Artificers* 1563 *to the Industrial Training Act* 1964. P. J. C. Perry: distributed by the British Association for Commercial and Industrial Education (BACIE), £16·00 (£14·00 paperback).

RUDDOCK, JEAN. *Learning through small group discussion – a study of seminar work in higher education.* Society for Research into Higher Education, £4·20 (members £3·15).

SMITH, FRANK. *Reading.* Cambridge University Press, £4·95 (£1·95 paperback).

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